

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 29, 1873.

The Week.

THE President has at last formally come to the relief of the Kelloggites in Louisiana by issuing a proclamation calling on the McEneryites "to disperse and retire peacefully to their respective abodes within twenty days," which we presume they will have no difficulty in doing, as few, if any of them, have left their homes. Indeed, the resistance to Kellogg is mostly passive. The preamble to the proclamation asserts that Kellogg's election and that of his officers "has been duly certified by the proper local authorities, and judicially determined by the inferior and superior courts of the State," which is untrue, and that "Congress had at its late session tacitly recognized the said Executive and his assistants, then as now in office, by refusing to take any action with respect thereto," which is true, and we must confess leaves the President, after he had once taken charge of Kellogg's cause, no alternative but to get through with it. But General Dick Taylor asserts that the President read him a message in which he recognized McEnery, but which he (the President) was forbidden to send to Congress by Senator Morton, who directed the composition of the one recognizing Kellogg, which actually was sent in, on the ground that the recognition of the former would cause the "great party" the loss of 80,000 colored votes. This story, which we believe to be authentic, shows what a queer place "inside politics" is.

The best possible commentary on the preamble of the proclamation will be found in Senator Carpenter's two recent speeches in New Orleans, which were so excellent both in matter and manner, and contained so much good sense, good law, and healthy politics, as to make one sigh for more Congressional eloquence of the same sort. Senator Carpenter was a member of the committee of the Senate which examined this Louisiana matter, and he says that so far from the title of the Kellogg officers having been "duly certified by the local authority, and judicially determined by the inferior and superior courts of the State," "one election board had no returns, and one had returns which were declared frauds," so that the State courts could determine nothing about the matter. It was, therefore, carried into the United States Court, and a judgment on it was obtained from Judge Durell, on which the President acted when he first recognized the Kellogg government. But, says Senator Carpenter, "the trouble with Judge Durell's judgment is that he had no jurisdiction in the matter." His judgment was not only unauthorized by law, but it was not even clothed in the forms of law. He "seized the State House by an order made out of court, without due form of process, not sealed by the court, and not signed officially, and not directed in the name of the President, as it ought to be." And Mr. Carpenter sums the whole matter up by saying that even if these defects of form were cured, if what Judge Durell did could be done constitutionally, "a mere judge could at any time turn over a State." Senator Carpenter repeated and adhered to the decision of the Senate Committee, that Kellogg, whom General Grant is supporting, was not elected at all; that McEnery, if elected, was elected by fraud; and that the only remedy is a new election, which he thinks Congress will order when it meets. In the meantime, he advises the people of Louisiana, and especially the colored people, to attend to their business and let politics alone, and to beware of establishing oppressive precedents or using the courts for the illegal annoyance of their enemies; because, he says, if the Republican party should be driven from power, these precedents would assuredly be used against their inventors.

Colonel McKenzie, who is in command on the Mexican frontier, has solved the question of protecting the Texans against Indian

raids from the Mexican side in a very rude fashion. He crossed the Rio Grande with 600 men of the Fourth Cavalry on the 17th instant, penetrated the Mexican territory to the distance of eighty miles, and attacked a camp of Kickapoo Indians near the Santa Rosa Mountains, killing nineteen warriors, wounding an equal number, capturing forty squaws, and recovering a considerable quantity of stolen property. Forty warriors of the tribe are supposed to be in the meantime operating in Texas, and will on their return find their "homes" desolated. This energetic measure was undertaken on Colonel McKenzie's own responsibility under pressure from the frontiersmen, who have for a long while past been harried in the most terrible manner by the Kickapoos, who come to the line in large bands, disperse to their bloody work in little parties, difficult either to follow or intercept, and then seek safety across the river with their booty under the Mexican flag. One of the difficulties in the way of repressing Indian forays nowadays, as was found in the case of the Apaches, whom General Crook has just been bringing to their senses, is the adoption by the savages, to a considerable extent at least, of that particular species of civilized costume known as the "simple dress of an American citizen"—viz., a swallow-tailed coat and pantaloons of black cloth, and a stovepipe hat. It was in this dress that the Apaches did most of their recent raiding, as it gave a band when seen at a distance on the prairie the appearance of a party of Methodist preachers on circuit, and consequently prevented the spread of alarm about cattle and horses. Whether the Kickapoos have clothed themselves in similar fashion we do not know, but it is a trick of some value to a cattle-lifter. The Mexicans are said to be greatly excited over Colonel McKenzie's performance, and it will be difficult for our Government to deal with it satisfactorily. It would be easy enough for General Grant to find justification for ordering it himself; but what is to be said in defence of such high-handed proceedings by a military officer on his own motion, and within telegraphing distance of Washington? Public opinion, however, in Texas will probably support him so strongly, and the Mexicans have been so faulty, that discipline will probably be allowed to suffer.

Further tidings from the rescued of the *Polaris* expedition have been published during the week. They repeat, in all the essential particulars, the story first telegraphed, but they leave undetermined the exact nature of Capt. Hall's illness, and they by no means clear up the mystery of the dispersion of the party. Two of the Esquimaux intimate, or are understood to do so, that Capt. Hall was poisoned by his sailing-master, Capt. Buddington. On this point Capt. Tyson and his white associates are silent, but they openly charge Buddington with abandoning them, both at the breaking up of the ice, when there was ample time to get all hands on board, and afterwards when the steamer was, on two separate occasions, in plain sight of the floe, with nothing to hinder her from bearing down to the rescue. We can hardly learn the truth about all this until the *Polaris* is heard from. Meantime, it will be safe to give the absent the benefit of our doubts.

The vetoing of the Local Option Bill in this State by Governor Dix, on grounds which we have enumerated elsewhere, reminds us that a similar measure, known as the Permissive Bill, has just suffered a decisive defeat, and by a largely increased majority, in the House of Commons. This result is mainly ascribed to the influence of the liquor-dealers, or "licensed victuallers," as they are called, which has been greatly increased by the extension of the suffrage, and which may be measured by the fact that the revenue received from them and the distilleries last year amounted to about \$100,000,000 in gold. It has been found at recent elections that all borough candidates who had incurred the hostility of this body were doomed to defeat, and as a general election is generally un-

derstood to be near at hand, members of the House have been taking the lesson to heart. The majority against the bill was, however, increased, in the opinion of the *Economist*, by the astonishment and disgust excited among moderate men at finding that the fanatical teetotalers were really making converts among Liberal members of the House for "the dangerous principle that a majority—whether a bare majority or two-thirds, or any greater proportion—is justified in interfering with the free action of a citizen on the ground that he is acting contrary to his own interest," and they accordingly determined to give these backsliders a lesson by letting them know that the "teetotal party is very noisy, very active, but in reality very weak."

The charges brought in the Assembly against Mr. Cornell, in connection with the disposal of the State's land scrip, have been frankly met and very convincingly refuted by Mr. Andrew D. White, President of Cornell University. In a speech to the Faculty and students on the 16th instant, he shows that when the State Comptroller had, on account of the glut of State scrip forced upon the market, been able only to sell about one-twelfth of New York's portion (990,000 acres) at eighty-three to eighty-five cents per acre, and could get no further, Mr. Cornell stepped forward, and engaged to take the remainder of the scrip at fifty and sixty cents per acre, giving bonds to locate the lands, pay the taxes on them, sell them, and pay over all profits to the Cornell University, making no charge whatever for his services. This he did with great judgment for more than half a million of acres, so that the scrip still on hand rapidly appreciated, and he disposed of it at prices ranging, as would appear, from eighty-six cents to a dollar. Turning next to dispose of the land he had carefully located, he offered it in various ways at five dollars an acre without success, and when offered four dollars for a hundred thousand acres by Mr. John McGraw, another benefactor of the University, he refused to accept it unless requested to do so by the whole body of the trustees, including the Governor and other leading State officers. This request was readily procured to be made.

Of course some of the land thus sold was worth a much larger sum per acre, but Mr. Cornell rightly refused to destroy the market for the collective property by allowing small purchasers to single out the most eligible lots. The rejected offers of this class of buyers have furnished the ground of the accusation that land worth \$60 an acre was parted with at nominal figures. As for the "settlement" which Mr. Cornell asks of the State, Mr. White says its object is "simply to enable him to transfer the mortgages and other proper securities received in payment for the lands to the custody of the State, and then, when a sale is consummated, to be relieved from further responsibility in the transaction." Mr. McGuire's motive in bringing these charges against Mr. Cornell and the University (which is falsely declared not to have complied with the requirements of the act of Congress of 1862 as to the studies pursued), Mr. White leaves us to infer from his account of the failure of the "People's College" at Havana, Schuyler County, to secure the whole Congressional endowment, when bestowed upon it on conditions which it neglected to fulfil, though they were much less onerous than those subsequently exacted of Cornell. A Mr. Cook was the founder of the People's College, and Mr. McGuire was at that time his attorney. At the request of the Legislature, Governor Dix has named as a committee to investigate the charges Horatio Seymour, William Wheeler, and John D. Van Buren.

Mayor Havemeyer, after winning a good deal of approbation by his earlier appointments, has made up his Police Commission in a way which it is no exaggeration to say has astounded all that is best among his supporters. The Police Commission is by far the most important of the City Departments; that on which people's comfort and safety are most dependent; and that, we need hardly say, through which most political influence can be exercised. We should naturally expect, therefore, that one of the first results of a

reform movement would be to put it into the hands of a few of our very best citizens, and give it a superintendent of the highest standing as regards character and ability. But now mark what has happened. One of the worst men in the old Board was a person generally known as "Hank" Smith, a politician of the lowest order and disreputably connected with a savings-bank defalcation and all sorts of "operations" of a doubtful class. The *Times* described him day by day during the last Presidential canvass in terms only applicable to a convicted thief, but gave the credit of all his wickedness to the Greeleyites. Well, the very first act of the four Custom-house publicists—Murphy, Bliss, Gardner, and Davenport—who charged themselves with the duty of drafting a charter for the city and forcing it through the Legislature, was to provide that "Hank" should be retained in the Police Board, and he was so retained by statute. Now comes Mayor Havemeyer, and appoints to sit beside "Hank" Mr. Oliver Charlick, an unscrupulous railroad operator, and along with him Mr. Hugh Gardner, one of the four publicists aforesaid; and Gardner's first act after the Board organized was to move the appointment as Police Superintendent of an old man of sixty-seven, named Matsell. Now who is Matsell? He was Superintendent or "Captain" of police for many years prior to 1857, when the police was a band of unorganized and wholly undisciplined nondescripts, half politicians and half bailiffs. He served in this capacity under Fernando Wood, and supported that worthy in his armed resistance to the Metropolitan Police Act in 1857. After the decision of the Court of Appeals affirming the constitutionality of the act, he retired into private life; and how does the reader suppose he has passed his declining years ever since? Why, in editing and publishing a filthy paper, illustrated with indecent woodcuts, called the *Police Gazette*. He is now dug out of the mire in which he has passed sixteen years of dishonored old age, to take the command of our police, under a reform charter and by a reform Mayor.

Comment on all this is happily superfluous; but we commend it to the careful consideration of all decent people. The one redeeming feature about it is that we know who is responsible for "Hank" Charlick, and Matsell; and it is neither Democrats alone nor Republicans alone, but one of those combinations of both by which "the men inside politics" in our day make the public virtue and indignation and pride as much matters of barter as leather or cotton. For Mayor Havemeyer's share in the transaction, the only apology we can offer is that Murphy, Bliss, and Company showed him the shameful way on which he has entered. But we think the Committee of Seventy are certainly bound to declare to their constituency whether they think this is reform, and if not, what they do think it. The affair affords one more illustration how completely politics has become a trade, and how little weight public opinion or public standards of morality have among those who follow it, and how little politicians are divided by party lines. Murphy is a Republican and Charlick a Democrat, for much the same reason that one man goes into the shoe business and another into the buggy business; and one stands by "the Constitutional Amendments" and the other opposes them for much the same reason that they love oysters, champagne, and "poker."

The Boston *Advertiser* recently contained an article which caused us to doubt if we had not been making a mistake in looking on Mr. B. F. Butler's intentions about the Massachusetts Governorship as something too ridiculous for comment. That has been our opinion, our faith in the General's star, except when he has opportunity for a good deal of hidden wire-pulling, never having been great, and it being always our expectation to see him beaten when decent people get a fair chance to show their estimate of the gentleman. But the *Advertiser* apparently deemed it necessary, one day last week, to go into a long and particular account of Butler's back-pay proceedings in the end of last February and beginning of March. It is a good article for the editors of the Bay State to keep on file

for reference. We trust the *Advertiser* contemplated that use of it, and that it surveys the future as one having a well-grounded hope. We observe also that Pomeroy is reported as getting ready to offer himself as Caldwell's successor from Kansas, and "his friends say that if the election were to take place to-day there would be no doubt of his success." There ought not to be.

The Ohio Republicans held their State Convention on Wednesday of last week. The resolutions were brief and not wholly devoid of buncombe, but recent events gave them, taken as a whole, a rather new flavor. Further grants of the public lands to corporations were "pronounced against"; as were also the back-pay grab and "all Crédit Mobilier transactions, whatever be their form." Congress must promptly and unconditionally repeal the Salaries act; and punishment must be visited on unfaithful public servants, "who, having betrayed the confidence freely extended to them, shall not be shielded from the disgrace of their acts by any partisanship" of the Republicans of Ohio, whatever be the course of the Republicans of South Bend or North Easton. The seventh resolution concerns transportation, and declares that "all abuse in the management of railroads, excessive rates, oppressive discriminations against localities, persons, or interests, should be corrected by law, and the people should be protected from such wrongs and all improper and arbitrary use of the growing power of railroad and other corporations." The nominations were of a good character, from Governor Noyes downwards.

The *World* has anticipated us in calling attention to a report, made by the London correspondent of the *Tribune* in its issue of Thursday last, of a conversation with Mr. John Stuart Mill at Avignon in the summer of 1866. The correspondent makes Mr. Mill say that "he regarded free trade as not an absolute doctrine, but a question of circumstances" (as if any economist of standing had ever regarded it as anything else), and then that "he [Mr. Mill] did not presume to say that the United States might not find protection expedient in their present state of development; he did not even say that if he were an American he should not be a protectionist." Now it so happens that, three months before this interview took place, the opinions which the *Tribune* correspondent repeats were attributed to Mr. Mill by common rumor, on the strength of a well-known passage in his 'Principles of Political Economy.' That rumor drew from him a letter dated February 26, 1866, and published in the Chicago *Tribune*, in which he says:

"The passage has been made use of to show the inapplicability of free trade to the United States, and for similar purpose in the Australian colonies, erroneously in my opinion, but certainly with more plausibility than can be the case in the United States; for Australia really is a new country whose capabilities for carrying on manufactures cannot yet be said to have been tested; but the manufacturing parts of the United States—New England and Pennsylvania—are no longer new countries; they have carried on manufactures on a large scale, and with the benefit of high protecting duties, for at least two generations; their operatives have had full time to acquire the manufacturing skill in which those of England had preceeded them; there has been ample experience to prove that the alleged inability of their manufacturers to compete in the American market with those of Great Britain does not arise merely from the more recent date of their establishment, but from the fact that American labor and capital can, in the present circumstances of America, be employed with greater return and greater advantage to the national wealth in the production of other articles. I have never for a moment recommended or countenanced any protecting duty except for the purpose of enabling the protected branch of industry, in a very moderate time, to become independent of protection. That moderate time in the United States has been exceeded, and if the cotton and iron of America still need protection against those of the other hemisphere, it is in my eyes a complete proof that they ought not to have it, and that the longer it is continued, the greater the injustice and the waste of national resources will be."

The *Tribune* replies to this by quoting the passage from Mr. Mill's book in which he acknowledges that protection may be expedient in new countries; but his letter to Mr. Horace White is nevertheless in flat contradiction of the speech attributed to him by its London correspondent.

We have discussed elsewhere the change in the French Presidency. It was clearly foreshadowed by the defeat of M. de Rémusat

by M. Barodet at the Paris election, which caused a heavy fall in the French rentes, and was precipitated by the election of Rancé, a leading member of the Paris Commune, at Lyons. This man, who had earned shooting fully as much as most of those who fell at Satory, has never run away, and, as our Paris correspondent remarked some time ago, has made no secret of his possessing a safe-conduct from M. Thiers. The Right succeeded in driving M. Jules Simon, who was their great bugbear, out of the Cabinet, but his successor, M. Casimir Périer, gave them fatal offence by publishing a letter in which he declared that the re-establishment of a monarchy was impossible, that a republic alone could furnish a basis for the union of the Conservative parties, and that the country longed for its definite foundation. This announcement from a new Minister, followed by Rancé's election, satisfied the Monarchists that they must strike quickly. Accordingly, M. Thiers addressed the Assembly on Saturday in reply to the "interpellation" demanding a declaration of policy from the Government, and warmly advocated the definitive establishment of the Republic. The "order of the day, pure and simple," was then moved by the Left, and defeated by 382 to 348. A motion by the Right declaring that the form of government was not under discussion, and regretting the unconservative character of the recent reconstruction of the Ministry, was then carried by 360 to 344. A night session was then resolved on, at which M. Thiers offered his resignation, which was accepted by 368 to 339, and the Assembly refused to listen to a eulogy on him. All attempts of the Left to secure an adjournment were then defeated, and the Assembly proceeded to elect a successor, and chose Marshal MacMahon, by a vote of 390, the Left abstaining.

The Marshal has accepted the office "with pain," and, acknowledging that the Assembly is "the depository of the national sovereignty," promises, "as an honest man and a soldier, to continue the work of liberating the territory and restoring order, and to maintain tranquillity and the principles on which society rests." Our papers now give his biography, we think, for about the sixth time since 1859, with the addition even that he is "a descendant of Brian Born." He is certainly a descendant of one of the Jacobite emigrés of the eighteenth century, and of good family, and is as gallant a soldier and honest gentleman as ever lived. But he is no statesman, so far as is yet known, and not much of a strategist. A correspondent of one of the English papers well said of him during the Franco-German war, that no one could look into his manly, high-bred face without feeling that he would be a good man to ride after in a desperate charge, but without preferring also, on the whole, that the silent old fellow at the Prussian headquarters should decide when the charge was to be made. Perfect quiet reigns in France, and will doubtless continue to reign.

The Pope has been seriously ill lately, and is evidently fast declining. He is eighty-two; the attacks he is subject to become more and more frequent; there is an apprehension that he may not be able to rise again from his bed, where he still continues to receive princes, prelates, and ambassadors; in short, the political world is on the alert as to what may happen. There is no other conversation than on the imminent Conclave; each party has already its pretender; and the population are already laying their wagers on Cardinal Papebiac, the Moderate, and Patrizi, the friend of the Jesuits. There is no doubt that everything is duly prepared in both camps for the emergency. Still, the Conclave must always be a great lottery. The Italians are shrewd, and Bismarck knows his mind. It is true that the enemies of both, the Jesuits, are shrewd and determined; but things have come to the point that almost all conservative interests are against them, and it is the conservative interest, after all, which in the long run will almost always have the better of the adversaries—Right or Left, it hardly matters which—of the social and political *status quo*.

THE CRISIS IN FRANCE.

THE Right in the French Assembly have, according to the last accounts, played their game, if not with wisdom and discretion, certainly with boldness. The conflict with M. Thiers on which they entered as soon as they found that he inclined to consider the Republic the definitive form of the Government, was brought to a close on Saturday last by his resignation, and the election of Marshal MacMahon by a vote of 390 to fill his place. This change, no matter by what name it may be called, and how carefully veiled by legal forms it may be, is in reality a revolutionary act, somewhat similar to that which took place at Madrid the other day when the Ministry dispersed the Permanent Committee by force of arms. In performing it, the Right distinctly sets up the "gouvernement de combat" which they so long sought at the hands of M. Thiers; and by selecting the commander-in-chief of the army, a man who is a soldier above all things and refuses to be considered anything else, as the President of the Republic, they distinctly intimate that they are as ready to meet the Reds "in the streets," to use the most expressive phrase of French politics, as in the halls of council. In other words, they say plainly that, having the physical force of the country in their hands, they mean to keep it, and use it, if need be, if not to govern France in their own way, at least to prevent its being governed in the Radical way, without any regard to the construction put by their opponents on the powers or duties of the Assembly. They will not dissolve until they think it safe to dissolve, and they will not be controlled in their action on any point by any political theory. They will do what the necessities of the situation seem to them to require—no more perhaps, but no less certainly.

What has precipitated this crisis is the Paris election. Ever since Gambetta made his unfortunate speech a year ago, in which he spoke of the necessity of having the country governed by a new social stratum (*couche sociale*), the Right has been in a fever of suspicion and alarm, which no explanations or disavowals on his part were sufficient to allay. Their fears have seemed ridiculous, if not worse, to the greater part of the public, both in this country and in England, but on what ground we have never been clearly able to understand. We do not lose our wits here over violent speeches, whether aimed against the Government or against property, because we have been accustomed for three hundred years to seeing all political disputes settled, if not by a fair vote at an election, at least by lawful and civilized warfare, carried on within certain well-defined limits. Within that period of Anglo-Saxon history, there have been three great controversies which it was admitted on all sides the ordinary processes of politics were unable to close. One was the controversy between the King and the Parliament in 1640; another, the controversy between the colonies and the mother-country in 1776; and the third, the controversy between North and South in 1860. In all three cases the disputants, when argument had been exhausted, drew the sword in a *justum bellum*, in which property and the lives of non-combatants were respected, and the existing social organization and the established principles of government accepted on both sides as fundamental facts, which neither was competent to modify or abolish. In other words, the controversy was brought down, as in a legal pleading, to a single definite issue, to decide which, and which alone, battles were fought. But since 1789, France has seen three armed controversies also, in each of which not only was the form of the government put at stake, but the very foundations of society. In 1792, in 1848, and in 1871, French Conservatives had to fight, not after a fair vote, but after a few frantic speeches and songs, and not to decide who should exercise the powers of government, as those powers have been settled by the history and traditions and practice of the Western world, but to assert their title to their property, the sanctity of their marriages, the legitimacy of their children, the validity of their fathers' wills, and though last, not least, their own right to live in their own country. Men who are engaged in controversies of this kind are apt to be dreadfully in earnest, and though it is easy enough for one sitting in an easy-chair in New York, with the writ

of habeas corpus and the Dartmouth College Case behind him, to feel amused by their antics, it is not so easy to show that their fears and their fancies are wholly groundless. When Gambetta demands the committal of French affairs to a new social stratum, Frenchmen naturally read his words in the light of recent French history, and infer that he calls for a social revolution, as the most active and influential set of his followers understand that phrase.

Nevertheless, it is pretty clear that the Right in the Assembly has been steadily losing the support of the great body of the voters through the country, although there is no doubt they are just as hostile to the Reds as the counts and marquises are. Now this has been due, not, as some people have supposed, to growing confidence in Gambetta, but to growing confidence in M. Thiers; not to a growing love of a republic, but to a growing belief that the Republic was established. M. Thiers, and not the Assembly, has been for two years the central fact of French politics, and by the process which is witnessed in every revolutionary period in French history, the popular confidence and affection have settled on him as the representative of law and order—as the Government, in short. He took Paris; he restored the army; he paid the indemnity; he arranged for the evacuation of France by the Germans; he is, in short, the "saviour of society" for the time being. When, therefore, he came to loggerheads with the Assembly a year ago, and gave in his adhesion to the Republic, and proposed that it should be definitely established, and held out the olive-branch to the Radicals, the country sided with him, as it sided in 1851 with Louis Napoleon. When an election occurred, the voters cast their ballots for the man they thought M. Thiers wished to be elected and the state of things which he approved of, just as in 1852 they cast them for the man Louis Napoleon wished to be elected and for the state of things he approved of. To them the Assembly is a band of empty talkers, M. Thiers is a great and wise man and is "the chief of the state." To anybody familiar with the condition of the French rural mind, the notion that a great change of *opinion* has been going on in France on the questions at issue between Thiers and the Right, is simply an inference drawn from a supposed analogy between French political processes and our own. Opinion has not been changing in France; faith in M. Thiers and his work has been growing.

Now, Thiers was disposed to act in a conciliatory spirit towards the Left; he was anxious evidently to convert them from wild beasts into sensible politicians; and prior to the Paris election it was supposed that he was succeeding, and that with their support and that of the country he would be able to bear down the Right, and bring about a dissolution of the Assembly, or at all events the adoption of a permanent republican constitution, before his death or retirement. When, therefore, he put forward one of his own ministers, M. de Rémusat, a Republican of Conservative opinions and antecedents, as a candidate for Paris, it was felt that the election would be a crucial test of the success of his policy. If a constituency like Paris had accepted a man like Rémusat, it would have proved that M. Thiers was master of the situation, and the Right would probably have been awed into submission. All his friends, therefore, and indeed all the friends of Conservative Republics, implored the Radicals with tongue and pen to beware what they were doing, and to support M. Thiers's man, in order to strengthen his hands against the Monarchists, who have since Louis Napoleon's death been strengthened by the adhesion of the Bonapartists. The Radicals, however, were not men to be wheedled into wisdom or moderation. They not only did not support M. de Rémusat, but they went to Lyons, of all places in France, for a candidate of their own, and selected M. Barodet, a leading actor in the Red disorders there in 1870 and 1871, and a demagogue and adventurer of the most advanced kind, and elected him by a large majority. Of course, this blow was ruinous to M. Thiers. It proved that he had had no real hold on the Radicals, that their alliance with him was hollow and delusive, and that their notion of the proper remedy for French ills had undergone no modification in the direction of sanity or restraint.

M. Thiers immediately afterwards reconstructed his Cabinet, but still in a Republican sense, and the Right, feeling that their hour had come, at once sought to force him into submission or resignation. He has chosen the latter.

What is to come in the immediate future there is no use in trying to predict. The step which the majority in the Assembly has taken is an unmistakable appeal to the army, and it is not unlikely that their action hereafter will be guided by Marshal MacMahon's state of mind and the condition of the troops. There is no pretence, and indeed can be none, that he is a politician or statesman, or represents any particular set of opinions on great public questions. He is chosen President simply as the representative of the organized force of the community, as the man who is most competent to kill people who attempt resistance to the Assembly. The wise course, it would seem to an outsider, for the Assembly to follow would be, now that it has secured the control of the administrative machinery, and has provided for the maintenance of order, to dissolve and provide for the election of a new Assembly charged with the duty of drawing up a constitution. But we confess it seems more probable that the Right will cling to power until they have settled the form of government to their own satisfaction. To everybody who blames them, we reply that they are acting according to their light; that they are what they are and where they are; that France is still without a constitution, and 300,000 men are needed to keep the peace in French cities, not because dukes, counts, and marquises are fools and knaves and villains, but because that portion of the French community which loves order, and law, and liberty has not had the wisdom or discretion or strength to provide proper guarantees for them—which is very much like saying that, when a man has an ulcer on his leg, it is neither the ulcer nor the leg that is to blame, but the unwholesome condition of his blood.

TEMPERANCE LEGISLATION.

GOVERNOR DIX'S Message, vetoing the Local Option Bill, would be very entertaining reading if the evil with which it deals—careless legislation—had not attained such monstrous proportions. The object of the bill was to enable the legal voters of any town or city to determine by ballot whether the sale of intoxicating drinks should be permitted within its limits for other than "medicinal, mechanical, chemical, or sacramental" purposes, and to provide machinery for the enforcement of prohibition where prohibition was resolved on. Governor Dix has pointed out that it ties the voters up to the alternative of permitting the sale of all intoxicating drinks, including spirituous liquors, or none, including beer and cider. Now there is a difference of opinion, and he holds apparently a justifiable one, on the point whether it is expedient to prohibit the sale of beer and cider even on temperance grounds, and he thinks that any town or city which chose to recognize and respect this difference of opinion should be allowed to do so. In other words, he thinks towns and cities should be allowed to select the drinks they will permit or prohibit. On general principles, he is probably right on this point; but we doubt very much whether the distinction would be found capable of enforcement in practice in the existing condition of manners and opinion. There is in no State in the Union such a profound popular appreciation of the mischief and immorality of taking intoxicating drinks as is necessary to support a general measure of prohibition, and the result is that no general measure of prohibition has yet succeeded. The advocates of such measures are generally a small, active, and fanatically earnest body of men, who give time and money without stint to the endeavor to get their views embodied in legislation, and their views have such a show of reason and morality and even religion about them, that very few persons care to oppose them publicly. Indeed, those who openly and energetically take ground in favor of free drinking may almost be counted on one's fingers. The policy, therefore, which the enemies of temperance legislation have generally adopted in States in which the temperance feeling is strong, has been one of silence and acquiescence as regards the passage of prohibitory

laws, followed by determined but also silent opposition to their enforcement. Indeed, the prevalence and success of this policy are one of the jokes of the temperance "cause." The more rigid the prohibitory law, too, the less chance there is of its execution—a fact with which the opponents of such measures are perfectly familiar, and know how to turn to account, but which the temperance men can rarely be got to see, owing to that peculiar mania about the power of legislation which has taken possession in our day of the whole reform and radical army in every country, and the absurdity of which Herbert Spencer has been pointing out in his admirable series of papers in the *Popular Science Monthly*. Indeed, the more stringent the provisions of a law are, the better the reformers like it, as it furnishes a sort of outward and visible sign of the success of their efforts which the practical execution might not do. The framing and passage of the statute they consider their peculiar work; the frustration of it is the work of the Devil, or "the Reaction," or the "Epicureans," or whatever the name may be which in any particular country is now given to the principle of evil. The anti-temperance feeling is, therefore, a slightly jocose one. The "Alcoholists" make no speeches, and write no articles in defence of their views; they simply look on and chuckle inwardly over the failures of the temperance men. A person who evades or disregards a prohibitory law does not lose reputation by it; a man who drinks wine or whiskey in defiance of the statute loses neither his own respect nor the respect of his neighbors in consequence of it. This being the case, it is easy to see how hard it would be to prevent the sale of whiskey or gin while permitting the sale of beer or cider. If the question be reduced to one of the percentage of alcohol contained in any particular drink, it will hardly have much moral weight with the average man. The beer or cider seller is not likely to have much scruple about supplying a customer with an occasional glass of whiskey or brandy, and this particular mode of evading the law hardly any practicable surveillance could prevent. So that, though General Dix's objection is reasonable enough on its face, and one to which the state of opinion in this State gives great force, it is hardly likely to meet with acceptance from those who attach great importance to direct temperance legislation.

His exposure of the defects of the machinery for enforcing the law is, however, very valuable and instructive as an illustration of the way in which nearly all work which creates no offices is done in Albany, and also, let us add, of the gullibility of the temperance men. The excise law actually in force gives the boards of excise in cities, towns, and villages discretion in the granting of licenses. Under the Local Option Law, however, they would have been forced to grant them to all persons who filed a certain bond with certain sureties, so that there would be no legal limitation to the number of dealers authorized in any particular locality to sell whiskey for "medicinal, mechanical, chemical, or sacramental use." Moreover, nobody is under it authorized or empowered to exact any guarantee as to the purpose for which liquor is bought. The purchaser could, on entering the liquor store, assign whichever he pleased of the legal uses of his favorite "tap," and the dealer would have to take his word for it. The worst old toper in the town could buy gin or brandy for "chemical or sacramental use," and the bar-keeper could only laugh over it. Moreover, a large number of officers are required, if they know of any person within the town who is in the habit of becoming intoxicated, to give notice of the fact to all licensed dealers, and these are thenceforward all bound to refuse liquor to such person. There is something very ludicrous in the notion of enforcing such a provision in any of our large cities; but it is still more ludicrous when coupled, as in the act before us, with a prohibition against selling any liquor to be drunk on the premises. If a toper was compelled to consume his liquor at the place of sale, the dealer, to whom his name was of no value as a warning, might become familiar with his features, and thus be enabled to cut off his supply, but as the bill stands its enactment would simply, under the most unfavorable circumstances, compel drinkers to send their bottle in charge of a sober youth, or of a

tippler unknown to the police, and have it charged on the pass-book to "the mechanical, medicinal, chemical, or sacramental account," as the fancy seized him.

Nevertheless, it is, as General Dix says, a great pity to throw any obstacle in the way of repressing intemperance, and no bill having that for its object, however absurd in its provisions, ought to be lightly opposed. But nearly all the legislation which the friends of temperance have thus far brought about, has had for its first results to make attempts at repression ludicrous as well as abortive. It is not that it fails—for all laws fail—but it fails so utterly and completely that it leaves people wondering whether anybody but knaves or visionaries could have been concerned in getting it up. There is apparently in the present state of manners but one thing that temperance men can do, and that is, render the consumption of spirituous liquors somewhat more difficult than it is now. Upon the harmfulness of them there is no difference of opinion; upon the harmfulness of light wines, beer, and cider there is considerable difference of opinion, even among the best people. It would seem therefore to be the part of wisdom to attack what you can attack in greatest force, and with strongest public opinion at your back. The first weapon, therefore, of the temperance reformer ought to be judicious taxation on the manufacture and sale of the liquors he wishes to strike at, and corresponding encouragement of the manufacture and sale of liquors which he considers less harmful, or likely to take the place of the others, and by judicious taxation we mean taxation stopping at the point where it becomes more profitable to evade the law than pay the duty. There is no mode of making liquor scarce equal in efficiency to dearness, and dearness is never so effective as when it is accompanied by a cheap alternative. That is, you increase the dearness of whiskey without touching its price by making wine or beer cheap. The next instrument is a good licensing system, restricting the number of places in which, in any town or village, liquor may be sold; but this, as indeed the taxation, depends on a good system of inspection. Unless you have honest officers to levy the taxes, to enforce the licenses, laws are vain; and this brings us back, as do all attempts at reform, to the great reform of all—civil-service reform. The notion that things can in any department of our affairs be changed for the better when the agents of the state, through whose eyes it sees, through whose hands it strikes, and through whose character it inspires respect, are a parcel of corrupt knaves and adventurers, engaged during a brief period of office in laying up treasure for the idle days to come, is a sad hallucination. All talk of reform which does not take the purification of the civil service—that is, the provision of honest officers of the law—as its basis, let it be never so earnest, is as vain as the howling of dervishes.

"FEDERALISM" IN FRANCE AND SPAIN.

PARIS, May 9, 1873.

VERY few people in France read the significant account of the festivities which are taking place at this moment at St. Petersburg. The alliance of the two Emperors of Russia and Germany was never so close as it has now become; and the influence of the Czar has brought the Emperor of Austria and the new Emperor of Germany into closer contact. The interview of the three Emperors which took place last year was not particularly warm; but this year another interview will take place in Vienna itself during the great Exhibition, and the meeting at St. Petersburg is only a forerunner of this great political event. The comments of the official press, inspired by Prince Bismarck, leave no doubt on the character of these meetings of sovereigns. When the present Emperor of Germany was only Prince William, he was sent to St. Petersburg to assist at the inauguration of the Alexander column. He was accompanied by a few old warriors of 1813, 1814, and 1815. A hundred thousand Russian soldiers paraded before the column erected in memory of the Emperor who had entered Paris as a conqueror, and Nicholas, turning to Prince William and his followers, and pointing to his own army, said: "Gentlemen, here you see the reserve of the Prussian army before you." These very words were remembered during the late military festivities at St. Petersburg. Every day the Emperor of

Germany receives the report of his Kaluga regiment; the two Emperors act and talk like brothers in arms, and this is what the *Provinzial-Correspondenz*, directly influenced by Prince Bismarck, writes on the subject:

"As the meeting of the three Emperors last September was welcomed as a guarantee of a peaceful policy, so our Emperor's journey to St. Petersburg and the coming interview at Vienna are interpreted in a like sense now. The union of the three Emperors gains additional and immediate weight from the fact that the prospect of quiet and progressive development in the western states of the Continent is becoming more and more obscured."

This allusion to the western states of Europe is significant enough, coming immediately after the Radical elections which have taken place in France, and the *coup d'état* of the Madrid Government against the Permanent Commission of the Cortes. Spain is in a state of complete anarchy. A year ago the supporters of the throne of Amadeus were considered as the most advanced Liberals, but now these very men, Zorrilla, Sardoal, Rivero, are obliged to fly for their lives. The men who are in power in Madrid represent little more than the passions of the Madrileño mob; they cannot hinder the *intransigentes* from entering the houses of suspected persons and from searching for them. Castelar is a sort of Spanish Jules Favre; he writes eloquent despatches, exchanges courteous letters with M. Thiers, and speaks of a Spanish conservative Republic. Elections will soon take place for a new Constituent Assembly, but no party will enter the lists except the party now in power, and the new Assembly is likely to be only too unanimous. It will represent Spain as the Chamber of Amadeus represented it, which means that it will not represent it at all. Spain is on that fatal road on which the Mexican Republic has so long travelled. In the countries of Latin extraction, the word *republique* does not mean the will of the people, obedience to a constitution which is considered by all parties as the higher and highest law, organization of parties which can legally follow each other in power and need no revolutions to take each other's place: this word means simply the rule of force, the subjection of the conservative, hard-working, honest, laborious millions to an audacious minority, which can make revolutions, draw lists of provisional governments, throw them down from a balcony, disarm the army, and arm the populace.

I think I can perceive two frightful symptoms of decay in the Latin races: two of the most elementary and primitive instincts seem to be abolished—the instinct of self-preservation, and the instinct which teaches the relation of cause and effect. Italy alone seems to have preserved them; and her future is not so dark as that of Spain or of France. Even the Republicans in Italy, such men as Mazzini and Garibaldi, have seen the uses of a national dynasty. The Savoy dynasty gave to Italy, by the marriage of Prince Napoleon with Princess Clotilde, the alliance of Napoleon III., and this alliance helped Italy to conquer Lombardy and to commence the work of unity; the Savoy dynasty was able to form the alliance with Prussia which gave to Italy Venetia and afterwards Rome; the Savoy dynasty keeps the federalist tendencies of Italy subordinate to the great necessity of union. Victor Emanuel, who is not a genius, but who personifies in himself the historical forces of a dynasty, has been able to achieve and is able to defend Italian unity. Those who live in a real republic must always remember that the instruments of government in old countries have been formed by time. What I call the instruments of government are the organs which give vitality to the nation. What are these organs? They are generally a dynasty, an army, and powerful administrations of finance, of justice, of industry, etc. This machinery, in all Latin countries, is all the government, as there is no self-government; if you break it or derange it, all goes wrong. Such was already the case in Gaul under the Roman occupation; when Rome was so threatened on all sides that she was forced to recall the six legions which were constantly located in Gaul, those countries which under the Roman administration had been in some parts very prosperous, became at once the easy prey of the Northern invaders. Federalism in Spain and the Commune in France do not mean any combination like that which ties together the States of America and the Cantons of Switzerland: it means simply the destruction of all the instruments of a centralized government, the return to an atomic state of society which would have no general laws, no national debt, no national army, no national navy; in fact, it means the destruction of the national unity.

A few years ago, the feeling of unity was so strong in France as to admit of neither doubt nor contradiction. All the works of our great historical school, of Augustin Thierry, of Guizot, and others, tended the same way. All the faults, even the crimes, of royalty and afterwards of the Revolution were excusable for this reason, that the result of their efforts had been the constitution of a France united for ever, "une et indivisible." This unity, alas! is now in peril. France has not only lost two provinces which she had possessed for centuries, and which furnished some precious elements

to her nationality; during the war, a curious hostility manifested itself against Celtic Brittany. Gambetta once denounced the poor Mobiles of Brittany in terms which were almost inspired by hatred. In the South, various local leagues sprung up spontaneously, and the most noticeable was the League of the Southeast, composed of the departments of the valley of the Rhone, from Lyons to Marseilles. It is not uncommon now to hear men of the North speak with contempt of the population of the South. The rich departments of the southern part of France, which have hardly ever received any infusion of Celtic or of German blood, are inhabited by a people which has in reality little in common with the more austere, more serious populations of the North. Paris forms in the middle of the North a province in itself; it is the hot-bed of revolutions, the city of popular commotions, of the Saint-Bartholomew, of the siege of Henri IV. and the Council of Ten, of the great Terror of 1793, of the Commune of the 18th March. In a country thus composed nothing can preserve unity but a political law which is not and cannot be constantly threatened. There is, unfortunately, no republican constitution protected by time and by tradition; there is a national dynasty, but, owing to many circumstances, this dynasty has played no part in the recent events. It offers itself to the nation, not as a necessity, but merely as a convenience; and it may even be said that it does not offer itself to the nation at all. The Bonaparte dynasty misunderstood its mission; Napoleon III. had a vague idea that he must promote the material interests of the country, and achieve its unity by the development of the national wealth. His name will ever be associated with the establishment of free trade, with the rebuilding of Paris, with the new Opera, and a hundred other palaces; his mistake lay, as Renan has justly remarked, in his belief that glory was as necessary to France as wealth and equality. He used the sword, and he perished by the sword. What France would ask now from a royal or imperial dynasty is order, the preservation of her wealth and of her unity. She cares little for parliamentary institutions and self-government. She speaks much of revenge, but she does not wish to make war, and looks upon the army merely as an instrument of order. A man who should know how to assure order for a number of years would soon be looked upon as a god, and he could do almost as he pleased. His parliament would become as subservient as the Corps Législatif of Napoleon III. France needs a Bismarck, who was obliged so long to act with the anti-Liberal party, and who first made Germany united, knowing that once united she would be free, but that disunited she could not gain much from local liberties.

But the pride and the ambition of Thiers have barred the way to a monarchical restoration. The strong minister who could consolidate the broken parts of France around a firm dynasty has not appeared. We have been led into a land of dreams and of illusions: let us make new experiments, let us try something unknown, and make the "loyal essai" of the Conservative Republic. But now it seems as if we should soon be obliged to make the "loyal essai" of the Commune. For what is the meaning of Barodet's election by 180,000 electors in Paris? It means the Commune. And what means Ranc, who will next Sunday be elected in Lyons? The Commune. Rémusat, the scholar, the philosopher, who sacrificed his life-long opinions and affections on the altar of the Conservative Republic, has been ill-rewarded by the people. The masses do not understand the shades of politics. Give us a king or give us a republic. But when they speak of the Republic, it must be a republic with, by, and for the Republicans. Even Gambetta is to-day looked upon as a Conservative. The other day, in a court of justice, a man said to the President, who told him that his opinions were advanced: "Of course they are; can a Republican ever be advanced enough?" It must be well understood abroad that the Republic here means a steeple-chase of folly, of socialism, of revolution. M. Thiers and a few others have undertaken to reconcile all the partisans of monarchy with their ideal of a Republic. This is easy enough; but how will he reconcile the Republicans with this ideal? This is not so easy. The symptoms are everywhere apparent that they have failed in this undertaking, and that their régime has only been a halting-place of the revolution.

Correspondence.

WENDELL PHILLIPS ON THE COEDUCATION OF THE SEXES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts sat before me during Mr. Wendell Phillips's recent speech at the Social Science meeting at Boston, on the admission of ladies to Harvard College. I do not know how he was impressed, but, if he were an honest man like myself, it was something as follows: Judging from Mr. Phillips's remarks, his main argument, were he before the Supreme Court on the question, would rest on the assumption,

first, that the early donors to the funds of Harvard College were men who would keep abreast of the public sentiment on the coeducation of the sexes; secondly, that the sentiment of the present time is unequivocally in favor of that method of education in colleges. The Supreme Court, if it were honest, would doubtless assume that the large-hearted benefactors of higher education two hundred years ago should be judged by the sentiment prevailing among the same class now, and would ask Mr. Phillips for his facts. The facts would be that in the older portions of our country millions of dollars have been given during the past twenty years to increase the endowments of institutions already in existence which have given no signs of accepting for themselves the experiment of the coeducation of the sexes, and hundreds of thousands to establish institutions for the higher education of woman exclusively. Whereas, with the exception of Mr. Sage's offer to Cornell University, scarcely anything in comparison has been offered for the cause of higher education at the East with the condition of coeducation annexed.

If, failing here, Mr. Phillips appealed to the West, what better would he have to say? What is there in the charters of Western institutions that ties them, irrespective of its influence on the general educational trust committed to them, to the coeducation of the sexes? Are the endowments of Oberlin, for example, to which so much reference was made at that meeting, pledged unconditionally to the experiment of the joint education of the sexes? Whether any specific conditions to this effect are attached to any endowments of that or of other Western institutions or not, I do not know; but this I know, first, that the board of control consider it within their province to provide, and do provide, separate instruction to the sexes where that is deemed for the general good, as now, for example, in physiology; second, that they consider the boarding-place of the student as so related to the discipline of the school that it must be subject to their approval. If, now, the town grows larger, and the society of the place more heterogeneous, and the religious influences to which President Eliot referred as in part accounting for the success thus far less marked—and experience shows that such religious influences as have served to control the mass of minds there for the generation past are not secured to any place by an absolute law of nature—it is not impossible there will be need of, and there is nothing to hinder the board of trustees from practically, separating the sexes, and making it two schools under one control. So the conditions of the endowments of Western colleges would be of little service in proving Mr. Phillips's proposition.

Prof. Agassiz forcibly said in the discussion under consideration that Harvard did not have half money enough to educate her boys as the cause of higher education in this country demanded. It would be time enough to ask her to make the elaborate preparations necessary for discipline at Harvard under any system of coeducation when she could do her present work well. It seemed to an honest listener that the more honest the Supreme Court, the more likely it would be to concur in the weighty remark of President Eliot, that the authorities of Harvard College have too vast an educational trust committed to them to risk it at present in an experiment so fundamental, and so hesitatingly approved by the public, and so doubtful, as that of the coeducation of the sexes in a university is.

AN HONEST LAYMAN.

ANDOVER, MASS., May 24, 1873.

[There is one consideration bearing on this question by which it is reasonable to expect the managers of male colleges to be influenced, but of which we have seen no notice in any of the recent discussions. Male colleges are now engaged in training that portion of the human species which does and has always done the heavy work of the world—the legislating, trading, building, fighting, producing, and exchanging. An opinion that women will take a large part in this work has of late sprung up, but it has as yet not got much beyond the stage of tea-table and lunch speculation. To ask any manager of a boys' college, therefore, to try the coeducation scheme, is to ask him to imperil the efficiency of what is unmistakably his business, for the sake of trying an experiment which may or may not lead to something. He can do this if he pleases, but he may be a very sensible man and refuse.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO. send us the last volume of their uniform edition of the United States Statutes at Large, embracing those passed at the 3d session of the XLIIId Congress. There are the usual indexes to the public acts and resolutions, to the private laws passed at the same session,

and to the treaties and postal conventions, of which the full text is given. —The London *Practitioner* has added to its already valuable contents a "department of public health," beginning with the number for May. Under the head of "International Hygiene," it states that Turkey, alarmed by the violent outbreak of plague in Persian Kurdistan in 1870, made an appeal to the other European powers which will shortly result in the formation of a mixed sanitary commission, appointed by them with the concurrence of Persia. "To this commission will be submitted, at the suggestion of England, in addition to the question of plague, the further question of the possible danger to Europe of the introduction of cholera by the quicker and more direct route of traffic opened between Persia and Russia, through Transcaucasia to Poti, and thence by steamer to the ports on the Black Sea." —Noyes, Holmes & Co., Boston, have in press a "Life of John Warren, M.D., Surgeon in the Revolutionary Army, and First Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in Harvard College," by Edward Warren, M.D. —G. P. Putnam's Sons will hereafter be the publishers of Dr. Brown-Séquard's *Archives of Scientific and Practical Medicine*, and of his various works on nervous affections. They will shortly issue an American reprint of the London *Science Gossip*. —The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has sustained the executors of the late Dr. Rush in their litigation with the Philadelphia Library, and the result will be the erection of an uncommonly fine fire-proof library building on the corner of Broad and Christian Streets—a part of the town considered not very respectable, and certainly now at some distance from the centre of the best population. As soon as completed, it will be offered to the Philadelphia Library, when the question of accepting the legacy under its peculiar conditions will recur, and perhaps reasons be found for not declining it. —We have received from the New York Historical Society a catalogue for 1873 of its Museum and Gallery of Art. A large part of this valuable collection—at least the antiquities of Egypt and Nineveh—we hope will one day become the property of the Metropolitan Museum of Art. —Hurd & Houghton announce "The Isles of Shoals," by John S. Jenness, illustrated. —Mr. James E. Munson warns booksellers and the public generally that Mrs. Eliza B. Burns has infringed on his copyright in her recent work on "Phonic Shorthand." —We would call the attention of our city readers to the public announcement that Miss Mary Carpenter, of England, the well-known philanthropist, will deliver, by invitation of the National Prison Association, an address on Prison Discipline and Reformatory Treatment of the Young, in the Church of All Souls, on Thursday evening next, June 5. Miss Carpenter is a member of the distinguished family to which Dr. W. B. Carpenter, her brother, belongs, and is a most eloquent and effective speaker.

—No doubt many of our readers have had their attention called to the undertaking of Messrs. James R. Osgood & Co., of Boston, who propose to reproduce, by means of the heliotype process, all the best examples in the Gray collection of engravings in the library of Harvard College, with whatever finer specimens may be loaned them for this purpose by private persons. They have already made considerable progress, their list of prints thus far published containing nearly fifty titles. The artists represented in the collection are mostly those of whom the general public knows but little, but of whom some knowledge is necessary in order to get even a superficial notion of the history of the art of engraving. Thus we have a very good specimen of a Florentine "Niello," supposed to be by Maso Finiguerra; two plates from the series by Mantegna, "The Triumph of Cæsar"; a print by an unknown hand—the Master of 1466—the subject, "Solomon compelled by one of his Wives to worship an Idol"; several of Albert Dürer's works, including his more famous masterpieces, "The Melencolia," "The Knight, Death, and the Devil," "St. Jerome in his Study," "St. Hubert," the "Shield with the Skull," "The Knight and the Lady," and also a copy of the striking etching on iron, "The Great Cannon," which needs to be done over again from a better example. Then, there are a half-dozen specimens of Lucas van Leyden's cold and unimaginative but occasionally interesting art, and also a number of good selections from Rembrandt's etchings. Other copies are from Marc Antonio, Cort, Masson, Van Dyck, and we are promised a great many more. It is hardly necessary to say that we consider this a most useful enterprise. It is true that the artistic value of the heliotype copies is as yet but secondary to their value for study, and unless it be remembered that the conditions for attaining excellence in a publication of this nature are vastly inferior here to what they are in France—where they are nearly perfect—there may be some disappointment in store for those who have been led to expect *fac-simile* copies of the masterpieces of engraving. At their best these copies represent little more than the composition, and the general effect of the lines or of the light and shade. Apparently the heliotype process cannot give depth nor *chiaroscuro*—that "light in dark" which is Rembrandt's superficial charm—nor that clearness of line in which Dürer

excelled. The publishers, however, promise us copies of the best examples of these and of other masters that can be procured, and to this end they are anxious to secure the co-operation of amateurs and collectors. They are, as we have reason to know, very much in earnest in the matter, and we trust that there will be sufficient encouragement to make it worth while for them to persevere.

—We do not without diffidence venture to dissent from a conclusion reached by *Nature* in comparing the school founded by Mr. John Anderson on Penikese Island with a fellowship recently offered by Trinity College, Cambridge. What the pecuniary value of this fellowship is we are not informed, but it is offered for natural science, and zoölogy is one of the subjects by which it may be obtained. To obtain it, candidates must send in original papers, published or in manuscript, containing their own observations, experiments, or discussions of scientific questions; and they may be also examined on the subjects of these papers or on kindred topics. In this way, *Nature* thinks, the electors are morally certain to discover "a genuine zoölogist," and "it is difficult to believe that any candidate who, at the time of election, has completed sufficient good work to satisfy the electors, can possibly, on account of its intrinsic interest when he has arrived so far, give up the further pursuit of scientific work." On the other hand, *Nature* seems to predict failure for Prof. Agassiz's Marine Naturalists' School, either for want of pupils, or because these, if secured, will be but "an assemblage of amateur students, whose work, as it must be from the lack of sufficient stimulus to great mental effort, is poor from its want of thoroughness, and therefore comparatively useless in the long run, only encumbering the subject, and leading lookers-on to suppose, from the few results arrived at, that the science is not worthy of deeper consideration." *Nature* is probably by this time aware that Prof. Agassiz receives during the present year as students only persons actually engaged in teaching natural science, and that the applicants have far exceeded the present accommodations of the establishment. The school, therefore, appears to satisfy a general want, and to meet with no lack of enthusiasm, while it is certain of accomplishing a definite kind of good in common with all other normal training-schools. As regards the stimulus which its pupils will have to make the most of their opportunities, we should know exactly what to expect from the influence already exerted by Prof. Agassiz on his classes at the Cambridge Museum, and by Prof. Shaler in his field excursions in geology. In fact, we do not see why the theoretic objections brought against this branch of the Museum do not apply to the Museum itself, whose graduates have thus far done anything but bring zoölogy and biology into disrepute. Whatever the chances may be that the work actually done at Penikese in the long run will not equal in positive value that of the winner of the Trinity fellowship, we are confident that the former will far surpass the latter in its immediate effects on the national interest in science and the willingness of Government to favor scientific enterprises, for which it already enjoys an honorable distinction.

—We have received from Professor Charles Frederick Hartt, of Cornell University, a copy of a paper forming part of the "Transactions of the American Philological Society for 1872," which is the precursor of what will doubtless prove a valuable contribution to the philological study of our American aborigines. It consists of notes on the "Lingoa Geral" of the South American Indians, or the modern form of the old Tupi language. It is a tongue still spoken by the various tribes of the Amazonian countries, though destined rapidly to be displaced by the Portuguese, as it itself has displaced the older form of the Lingoa Geral known to the Jesuits. These two languages now differ greatly, Professor Hartt says; and a speaker of modern Tupi would not understand the Tupi in which the old Jesuits preached and wrote, after they had reduced it to writing and made grammars and dictionaries of it. Indeed, it is probable, and almost certain, that when these missionaries designated the Tupi of the Coast as the Lingoa Geral, or general Brazilian language, they did it hastily so far as concerned the Indians of the interior. It is highly reasonable to suppose that in different parts of this vast region many local peculiarities prevailed which distinguished the Tupi of the central and western Amazonian region from that of the coast of Southern Brazil. However that may be, the advance of Portuguese civilization and other causes strongly operative on the speech of barbarous and unlettered tribes, have made the Lingoa Geral of to-day as different from that of two hundred years ago as Italian is different from Spanish, and even more so. Of this modern tongue there has hitherto been no published dictionary or grammar. Five years ago Professor Hartt, who was engaged in preparing a work on Brazilian geology and physical geography, found it necessary to study the indigenous geographical names of the country in order to arrive at their orthography; and as he could get no books upon the subject, he determined to take advantage of a visit made to the Amazonian country in 1870 to acquire a knowledge of the Lingoa Geral. In travelling

he secured whenever possible guides who spoke Tupí, and, using a phonetic alphabet, soon acquired a good-sized vocabulary. As he became somewhat familiar with the language, he "took down from the lips of the natives hundreds of sentences illustrating its grammatical structure, and, finally, having trained two guides to dictate in Lingoa Geral, was able to collect dialogues, stories, legends, and myths." Everything was written exactly as spoken, and afterwards, with the aid of natives, corrected again and again, and in 1871, on a second visit to Brazil, the work was increased and still further revised. The whole is now in course of preparation for the press.

—Curious as it may be, it was entirely to be expected that far away under the equator on the banks of the Amazonian streams the investigator of folk-lore should come upon the same tales that are told to children in nursery rooms under the Arctic circle. The adventure of our Jack the Giant Killer, who challenged the Welsh giant to eat with him, Professor Hartt heard related in the Tupí language in a Brazilian forest: the "kurupiras" are anthropomorphic wood-spirits characterized by reverse feet, who lead the traveller astray, perhaps to destruction, but who, though generally maleficent, sometimes do man a good turn; many myths relate how the hunter has been presented by one of them with unerring arrows that cannot miss the mark. Man may sometimes outwit them; and it is told of one of them that a hunter played on him Jack the Giant Killer's trick, and induced him to cut himself open and thus commit suicide. So, too, the Tupí Oíara, or water-sprite, like the mermaid and lurley of Northern mythology, entices human beings to her home beneath the water. Again, the Amazonian Indians narrate the story of a match at running between a tortoise and a deer. The former stations her relatives along the course at short distances, and beats her antagonist—"a fable found also in Africa and Siam," remarks Professor Hartt; found also in the Sea Islands, we will add, and substantially the fable everywhere found which illustrates the general truth that the race is not always to the swift. The swan maiden the Indians have also; only with them it is a dress of parrot feathers that the spirit lays aside; she is seized by a man before she can resume it, and becomes his wife and the mother of a new tribe. Beast and bird myths Professor Hartt found numerous in the Tupí. One of these is about a second wise tortoise. He wagers with a big fish that he can pull the fish ashore, and then going to a tapir, he wagers that he can pull the tapir into the water. The tapir and the tortoise proceed to the water's edge, where the fish awaits the contest, and the tortoise, tying both of them together with a *sipó*, wins the wager, for, after a long struggle, both fish and tapir confess themselves exhausted by the endeavor which, as each supposes, he has made against the efforts of the perspicacious tortoise. The ibis, in a less ingenious but equally effective manner, cheats the night-hawk:

"Once on a time the night-hawk spoke like people. His shirt was very pretty, because it was so red, but the ibis's shirt was black and ugly. The ibis looked at the night-hawk, and was pleased with the night-hawk's shirt. The ibis came to the side of the night-hawk. 'Lend thy shirt to me,' he said to the night-hawk. 'Why dost thou wish to borrow my shirt?' The ibis answered, 'I wish to amuse myself; and go to dance.' 'Until when?' the night-hawk asked. To this the ibis answered, 'Until three days after.' The night-hawk took off his shirt, and gave it to the ibis. 'Here it is, do not cheat me; I await thee.' The ibis went away; never did he return; he went completely away from the night-hawk; never did he appear in his sight again. The night-hawk awaited him, but he appeared not. And the night-hawk wept; he cried, and said, 'Ibis, bring my shirt to me!' Always he cried on account of the ibis."

This is why the night-hawk goes clad in sombre attire while the ibis is of gay plumage, and perhaps it is to answer the question, "Why is the ibis red?" that the fable was invented; if so, it goes into a large class—as, for instance, the class containing the fable which makes the aspen shiver because it furnished wood for the cross of Christ; the one which marks the haddock with a thumb-and-finger mark because Saint Peter held him by the right hand and took the tribute money from the fish's mouth with the left, and a thousand other similar fancies, known to more ambitious poets than those of the cave and hut and hearthstone as well as to these. We do not know enough of our Tupí to guess whether the demand of the night-hawk for his shirt resembles his natural cry, and Professor Hartt does not inform us.

—An old mystery has at last been solved, or at any rate brought as near solution as it is likely to be for a long time, by the labors of M. Th. Jung, a staff-officer of the French army. In the archives of the War Department, M. Jung, who has for several years been occupied in historical-military studies, has discovered a mass of documents throwing a great deal of light on the vexed question of the identity of the celebrated state prisoner known as the "man with the iron mask," and establishing his connection with a "vast conspiracy, whose ramifications spread themselves throughout Europe, with

the avowed object of taking the life of the King of France." At the beginning of the year 1673, the royal secretary-at-war, Louvois, "was advised of the active preparation of a plot to take the life of the king during his journey from Paris to Maestricht, of which the siege was soon to be opened." Through Père Hyacinthe, one of Louvois's secret agents, it was discovered that the chief of the conspiracy had been in Paris in 1672, but was then (1673) at Brussels, with a band of ten conspirators. Funds for the enterprise were supplied by a certain Groët of Amsterdam; and the "treaty" signed by the conspirators was in the hands of one Abraham Kiffled in Brussels.

"The chief of the band was young and elegant, by birth of Lorraine, formerly captain in the cavalry of the empire. Like all the adventurers of the period, he bore several names. At Paris he was the Chevalier de Kiffelbach, at Brussels the Chevalier des Harmoises. Highly educated for that period, he spoke several languages, lived handsomely, and had the reputation of having carried off the wife of a Bohemian colonel."

Concerning this person, the most minute details are communicated by Père Hyacinthe. On the 27th of March, the Chevalier leaves Brussels.

"Meantime, guards had been placed at all the fords and passages of the River Somme in the neighborhood of Péronne. During the foggy night of the 22nd and 23rd of March, 1673, a group of horsemen approached one of these passages. The one who appeared to be the chief of the band first struck into the ford, with which he appeared to be familiar. Tall, well-formed, young, he wore a plush doublet ornamented with silver buttons, and a large cloak, whose collar concealed his face. A broad felt hat ornamented with a black plume, soft boots of yellow leather, and a broadsword, completed his accoutrement. He had hardly reached the summit of the opposite bank, where his horse began to shake off the water, when a fire of musketry was opened upon the party, his horse's bridle was seized by several soldiers, and he himself dismounted and bound hand and foot in a few moments. His followers saved themselves as best they could. Taken to the prison of Péronne, he gave his name as Louis de Oldendorff, native of Nimeguen, but his assertions did not accord with the papers found upon his person nor with those contained in his portmanteau. Four days afterward he was at the Bastille."

For twenty years M. Jung traces the prisoner's history through Pignerol, Exiles, Ste. Marguerite, back to the Bastille, where he dies on the 19th of November, 1703. This man was neither Louis, Count de Vermandois, nor Francis of Vendôme, Duke of Beaufort; nor was he the Duke of Monmouth, nor Mattioli, nor a natural son of Anne of Austria, nor Fouquet, Marquis of Belle Isle, nor a twin brother of Louis XIV., nor Avedick, the Armenian Patriarch. Singularly enough, his name was the very name which appears entered at the time of his death on the journal of Du Junca, "lieutenant du roi" at the Bastille, a name in itself of no importance whatever—Marchiel. The importance of this man to the Government seems, from M. Jung's account, to have arisen from the papers found upon him, probably implicating persons high in power. Those who are interested in looking further into the matter may find an interesting essay on the mystery itself, together with a valuable "synoptical table of Iron-mask literature," compiled by Col. James F. Melville, in the June number of the *Galaxy*.

—Last week died Alessandro Manzoni, the most honored and revered name of the century in Italian literature. As poet, dramatist, and historical novelist, he early endeared himself to his countrymen, and perhaps we should not readily find a parallel for the popularity which his *chef-d'œuvre*, 'I Promessi Sposi,' has maintained for nearly half a century during its author's lifetime. He was born in 1784, and witnessed all the painful and all the glorious vicissitudes of the Peninsula in that stormy interval, outliving both of the Napoleonic liberators of Italy, and both his younger compatriots, Cavour and Mazzini, and attending Italian unity in its steady march from Turin to Rome. His death was preceded three weeks (April 28) by that of his oldest son Pier Luigi Manzoni, who passed away at the age of sixty, and who, without ever attaining celebrity as a writer, had for thirty years been a diligent student of the ancient Celtic dialects in France and Great Britain, his design being to connect these studies with the relics of Celtic nomenclature in Northern Italy, his native *pays*. The notes which he has preserved will, it is promised, be collected and published.

THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF PRINCIPAL FORBES.*

As the late Principal Forbes is principally known to the public by his writings on glaciers, we will pass over, as of more limited interest, the sketch of his early life, of his work as a professor and as a university reformer, due to the pen of Principal Shairp, and devote the space at our disposal to a brief review of the glacier controversies in which Forbes, Agassiz, Rendu, and Guyot have played such important parts. As the

* "Life and Letters of James David Forbes, F.R.S., D.C.L., LL.D., Late Principal of the United College of Saint Andrews, By John Campbell Shairp, LL.D., . . . ; Peter Guthrie Tait, A.M., . . . ; A. Adams Reilly, F.R.G.S. With portraits, maps, and illustrations. 8vo." London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

larger portion of the volume before us is filled with an account of Forbes's Alpine travels, and of his researches into the natural history of glaciers, we give to this question the importance assigned to it by Forbes's biographers.

English readers have thus far heard but one side of the question, thanks to Forbes's zeal as a writer. His numerous articles and letters on glaciers in scientific periodicals, his travels in Norway and the Alps, and occasional papers, have kept his name so constantly before the public in connection with this subject, that he has succeeded in persuading most of his countrymen that he, and he alone, was the father of everything worth knowing about glaciers, and that none of his predecessors are entitled to much credit for what they may have done. His supporters have at last gone so far as to attack Tyndall, the only Englishman who has given credit to the pioneers of the glacial theory, for daring to go back and revive a controversy which the friends of Forbes thought "had long since been extinguished." It is not our purpose to enter into this more recent phase of the discussion further than to thank Professor Tyndall, as every fair-minded investigator will do, for having, in his popular sketches of glaciers, given credit to whom credit is due.

The authors of the 'Life and Letters' of Forbes had, of course, the fullest faith in his "scrupulous and chivalrous honor," thinking that neither the interest of truth nor justice to the dead could suffer such remarks as Tyndall's to pass unchallenged. They have given us, from Forbes's own letters, all that was necessary to show a course of duplicity towards the man with whom, to quote his own words, "he served his apprenticeship in glacier observation," unparalleled in the annals of science. If justice to the dead could not suffer such mild statements as those of Tyndall to pass unanswered, it is high time that the insults which have been heaped upon the living by Forbes himself during his lifetime, and by his friends since his death, should be noticed. Prof. Agassiz, who has been the object of all this abuse, never defends himself against personal attacks; he can well afford to leave to posterity the decision of his claims; but he must pardon his friends if, feeling that they cannot allow such falsehoods and misrepresentations to circulate without reply, they come forward now and make a plain statement of the other side of the question.

There are two kinds of investigations in the solution of the glacial problem—the geological and the physical; of these, the first was approached by the early explorers of the Alps, and was embodied, previous to Agassiz's researches, in the theories of Venetz and Charpentier. In 1836, Agassiz, under the guidance of Charpentier, explored portions of Switzerland, and became satisfied of the general correctness of these views. He continued, in 1837, further explorations of the Bernese Oberland, and, in the opening speech of the Helvetic Society of Natural Sciences, held at Neufchâtel in July, 1837, and of which he was the president, he gave the first account of his theories of glaciers, based upon his recent explorations. Studer, Elie de Beaumont, and Leopold von Buch were present—the ablest triumvirate of European geologists which could at that time be assembled. Agassiz was laughed to scorn. However, having made interesting glacial discoveries in the Jura, he invited the Association to come and see for themselves; but nobody would then acknowledge, what is now universally recognized, that the traces he showed had anything to do with glaciers. The painful position of the young enthusiast, facing the ridicule of the greatest geologists of the age, who, with Von Buch and his followers, were bent upon crushing the views of a "Gelbschnabel" who dared to encroach upon their field, can be easily imagined. Undaunted, however, Agassiz continued, in 1838, 1839, and 1840, to study what the glaciers of the present day really do, and what phenomena can be ascribed to their special agency. In order to accomplish his purpose more thoroughly, he established himself permanently, during his summer vacations, on the glacier of the Aar. Here for nine consecutive summers, and once during the winter, from 1837 to 1845 inclusive, investigations were steadily carried on by Agassiz and his party. Any one who will take the trouble to consult the 'Etudes sur les Glaciers,' published in 1840, can easily see what results they had obtained prior to that date. The bottom and sides of the glaciers had been reached in order to ascertain what mechanical effects the glaciers produce upon the rocks over which they move; measurements had been made, rough, it is true, of the rate of motion of the glacier at different points; the exterior and interior structure of glacier ice had been carefully examined; the moraines and their mode of formation had been discussed; a large number of observations of temperature of the glacier at different depths had been taken; the effect of infiltration of water into the body of the glacier had been watched, and the changes undergone by the snow in the higher regions of the Alps, until it is finally changed into glacier-ice, had been carefully studied. We find, also, the oscillations of glaciers discussed in this work, and the solid foundations laid of the glacial theory as far as the former great extension of glaciers over the larger

part of Europe is concerned. To test this theory, Agassiz undertook, in 1840, a journey to Great Britain for the special purpose of hunting up traces of glaciers. He announced his intention publicly in advance; it was received with ridicule, and even *Punch* indulged in good-natured thrusts at Agassiz and Buckland in their search after "moor-bens" (moraines). They went together to the lake regions of England, and to parts of Scotland, and, after they separated, Agassiz extended his rambles to Ireland. The result of this exploration was to prove distinctly the former presence of glaciers in England, Scotland, and Ireland, where no one had ever suspected their existence. A statement of these results, accompanied by a map exhibiting the glacial phenomena of the three kingdoms, was laid before the Geological Society of London at one of their meetings in November, 1840.

It was not strange that to a naturalist like Agassiz the physics of the glaciers should have had at first but a secondary interest. Having, however, once sketched out the great geological features of the theory, he felt the need of more accurate information as to the physical problems connected with glacial phenomena. Not himself a physicist—indeed, without any special training in that direction, he naturally sought the assistance of one of the most eminent physicists of the day, and, finding that Professor Forbes, whom he met in 1840 at the Glasgow meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, was interested in the subject, he invited him to pay him a visit during the following summer at his long-established settlement. Forbes accepted this invitation, and joined Agassiz on the glacier of the Aar in August, 1841. To those who know the circumstances of this little colony, and they were then notorious in scientific circles, and are still well remembered, Forbes's childish dissatisfaction, as expressed in his biography, Appendix B, p. 545, at the presence of others in an investigation which had been organized long before, and carried on systematically during several consecutive summers, is quite incomprehensible.

During the three weeks of Professor Forbes's stay upon the glacier of the Aar, Agassiz turned over to this novice in glacier work, with a generosity but ill requited, all the results of the laborious investigations of the preceding four summers, all his initiative experiments, all his processes, means, and appliances for work, disguising none of the early failures inevitable to new investigations by which future success had been reached, giving him, in short, the advantage of his whole experience on the subject. In a letter addressed to Prof. Forbes by Prof. Agassiz on March 24, 1842, when he first discovered that Prof. Forbes had published independently, as results of his own, the observations made upon the glacier of the Aar during his stay with the Swiss party, he says:

"The idea that in thought you conceived the project of an independent publication did not come to me for an instant; I should have thought I did you injustice by such a supposition."

The following summer (1842), Forbes established an independent station on the Mer de Glace, and, with the advantage of knowing all the preliminary elementary steps which he had learned from Professor Agassiz, he succeeded in making, at comparatively small cost and little outlay of men or means, some decisive measurements, which he published without loss of time. He then compares his own mode of work with that of Agassiz. We leave the reader to judge whether his slur upon the man whose hospitality he had accepted, whose tent he had shared, whose guides and assistants, whose instruments and apparatus of all sorts, had been placed at his disposition, together with all his previous scientific results, is in accordance with that spirit of "scrupulous and chivalrous honor" which his biographers ascribe to him. He writes to his friends in October, 1842, after his first summer of independent glacial work:

"I am not sorry that the world should have an opportunity of comparing the results of Agassiz's mode of working with those of mine. His force consisted of a paid surveyor, a paid draughtsman, a chemist, a geologist, a trumpeter—I know not whom besides."

Unfortunately for Agassiz, he knew not "whom he had besides" when he invited Forbes, who was his own trumpeter, and blew his blast so successfully that he succeeded in persuading his countrymen that he first proved the former existence of glaciers in Great Britain, already clearly shown by Agassiz in 1840; that he had been the first to measure the motion of glaciers, and to discover the true structure of glacier-ice, all of which had been done before he visited the glacier. In concluding the sentence quoted above (page 295 of his 'Life and Letters'), Forbes says, continuing his comparison of himself with Agassiz:

"I avoided society and the disturbances attendant on notoriety, and, with one assistant only, except on rare occasions, have performed all my summer's work—my ordinary expenses being eleven francs a day!"

A laudable economy, no doubt; but he forgets that he had the benefit of the preparatory and more expensive experiments made by Agassiz, and that "the society and the disturbances attendant on notoriety," by which he characterizes the little settlement on the Aar, were not sought by Agassiz. He was a Swiss on his own ground, not unmindful of the claims of hospitality; and though the visits he constantly received were often annoying interruptions, he received them with his natural courtesy.

The chief point of the controversy respecting the work of the summer of 1841 turned especially on a conversation between Forbes and Agassiz respecting certain blue bands present in the ice. These bands had been observed before at various times, and Professor Guyot, who had been constantly associated with Professor Agassiz in his glacial work, made a report upon them to the Swiss Society of Natural Sciences, in 1841, drawn up from observations taken in 1838.

The true nature of these bands remained, and still to this day remains, a mooted point among glacial investigators. It was only after Professor Forbes had left the camp that the most important observations were made concerning them, when Mr. Agassiz followed them into the glacier for a depth of 120 feet. It was in relation to this that he wrote, in a private letter of October of the same year, to Humboldt, that the penetration and direction of the veins of blue ice in the glacier had been among the most interesting results of the summer's work. Some passages of this letter were communicated by Humboldt to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and Forbes immediately claimed the results as his own, and accused Agassiz of a scientific theft. To this Agassiz replied, in a letter printed at the time for circulation among his friends, explaining the circumstances, and never afterwards took any notice of the matter.

From that time forward, however, Professor Forbes claimed as his own the most important results of glacial work both in England and in Switzerland, and he and his friends never ceased to cast slurs upon Agassiz, to impeach his veracity, and to ridicule his mode of investigation, as may be seen throughout that portion of his 'Life and Letters' devoted to the subject of glacial investigation. That a physicist like Forbes should have been able to treat the subject from a dynamical point of view, to make more accurate measurements than the geologists had done before him, is not surprising. Indeed, it would have been astonishing had he not handled the physical side of the subject with comparative ease. We undoubtedly owe him some very shrewd deductions from the physical properties of ice and the theory of heat, and some extremely clever theories which time may prove or disprove; and we have also to thank him for having rescued Rendu's theory from oblivion. But when he speaks of Agassiz as a careless observer who trusts to his guides for his measurements, who brings to his work a happy faculty of taking things for granted, as a man impossible to convince by reasoning, neither an original investigator of glacial phenomena nor a sound thinker upon them, we can leave the accuser in the position of a slanderer, and for justification of the accused refer to his 'Etudes sur les Glaciers,' and the 'Système Glaciaire,' with its magnificent atlas. As a natural consequence of the course of Forbes, it is not astonishing to find in a short life of him written by Geikie, and quoted at length in this volume, such sweeping claims made in his behalf as the discoverer of the former presence and extension of glaciers in Great Britain. Geikie is, as a geologist, bound to know better. He is, or should be, familiar with the history of the subject, and for him to put forth such claims is simply ridiculous.

When we come to Tait's estimate of Forbes's contributions to the natural history of glaciers, and read that Forbes was "the Copernicus or Kepler of this science," that he was the only one "who deserved to succeed," it is difficult not to smile, remembering the record of De Saussure, of Venetz, of Charpentier, of Rendu, of Agassiz, Guyot, and the whole band of Swiss explorers associated with him on the glacier of the Aar, like Merian, Mousson, Escher von der Linth. We cannot help throwing back upon Professor Tait the words in which he sums up his estimate of the work of others in the same field, and saying that his overappreciation of Forbes's glacial work is "absolute nonsense." His estimate of the value of scientific contributions to natural philosophy is more likely to carry weight with geologists than his affectionate appreciation of Forbes's memoirs on glaciers. As to the comparative merits of the glacial investigators, the scientific world will eventually decide the points at issue. The data are accessible to all critics. Tyndall introduced the wedge in his 'Glacier of the Alps,' where he seems to us to have done no more than bare justice to Professor Agassiz, though Professor Forbes and his friends consider even this an infringement upon his rights. The question has been reopened by the injudicious attacks upon Agassiz's veracity by Forbes's biographers, and they will have no one but themselves to blame if the claims of the latter are reduced to their true value by the searching examination to which they will

now be submitted. Justice will be done in the end, as it always is eventually in matters of original scientific work, to the true founder of the modern glacial theory.

GREG'S ENIGMAS OF LIFE.*

1.

MR. GREG arrests his readers' attention. He, as it were, "buttonholes" the public, and compels them to give heed to questions to which they often refuse a hearing. The enigmas he proposes are riddles as old as the hills, or, at any rate, as the existence of mankind. The significance of life, man's prospects of progress on this earth and of a future existence elsewhere, are themes which have been discussed in all ages, and which will, in all likelihood, be discussed for all time to come. The lapse of centuries takes nothing from their importance, but in a certain sense it lessens their interest, for the men of to-day are inclined to cast aside the consideration of problems which have taxed the ingenuity of all ages, and which, since they still remain unsolved, may possibly be unsolvable. To these fundamental problems of life Mr. Greg nevertheless has endeavored to bring back the thoughts of the world. The three editions through which his work has run in England are proof of his success; what are the causes to which this success is due? The enquiry is a curious one; the answer to it throws light on the character of a remarkable writer, and on the condition of English and American opinion.

Mr. Greg's success is obviously not owing to any novelty in his subject. His enigmas are, as we have just said, as old as speculation; nor is he indebted to the startling or paradoxical nature of his solutions. He can hardly be said to propose answers to the problems with which he deals. "In the later years of life," he writes, "the intellectual vision, if often clearer, usually grows less confident and enterprising. Age is content to think where youth would have been anxious to *demonstrate and establish*; and problems and enigmas which at thirty I fancied I might be able to solve, I find at sixty I must be satisfied simply to propound." One only of the seven essays of which the book consists can be even represented as paradoxical, and the "Non-survival of the Fittest," if it startles a few readers, can hardly appear paradoxical to any person who has reflected upon the nature of civilization and on the true meaning of the theory of natural selection. Nor, again, does Mr. Greg owe much to his style. He writes in good, plain, forcible language which exactly conveys his meaning, but he does not excel in beauty of expression, and he has not the vanity to pretend that he can, after the manner of some popular writers, settle the greatest difficulties by the invention of a new phrase, and supply the place of carefully chosen arguments by the invention of more or less happy epithets. Indeed, neither literary imagination nor imagination of any kind is precisely Mr. Greg's strong point. In some of his theological essays he most unfortunately seems inclined to compete with the writer of 'Revelations' in descriptions of a future life. His success is not such as to make his admirers wish him to indulge further in these laborious flights of fancy. His success, again, cannot be attributed to those qualities in which the most popular modern writers excel. Their strength lies in wide sympathy, insight, and appreciative criticism, and they show great skill in applying to all topics the historical method of criticism. Mr. Greg's strength certainly does not lie in this direction. No one can call him sympathetic. He is keen enough in defending his own positions, but certainly not endowed with insight into the position of his opponents. His treatment of every subject is dogmatic and controversial rather than historical. How an opinion grew up is a matter with which he slightly concerns himself. His main effort is to estimate its value according to his own criteria of truth or falsehood. We doubt, for instance, whether there exists any other modern writer of equal ability who would have dealt with the dogma of the resurrection of the body in the same manner as Mr. Greg. Most critics would have traced the doctrine to its source, and, even if they held it false, have devoted a good deal of pains to explain and, so to speak, justify its existence. This is not Mr. Greg's method of treating what he holds as error. He assaults the dogma boldly, and argues against it with the same controversial energy which he would apply to overthrow the follies of a protectionist. Here, in fact, we come across the secret of Mr. Greg's power. He belongs to a school of thinkers very different from the school who have for a long time been in the ascendant. He represents in many respects the opinions and feelings of the past rather than the present generation. You see, in every line he writes, the friend of Senior and the disciple of that school of which Whately and Senior were distinguished leaders. He lacks some of the merits of authors more in harmony with the sentiment of the time, but, as a compensation, he possesses qualities rarely found in

* 'Enigmas of Life.' By W. R. Greg. London: Trübner & Co; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

modern writers on social or theological topics. These qualities give a peculiar flavor and also a peculiar value to his work.

The main characteristic of Mr. Greg's mind is hardness. Whatever else you may say against him, you cannot call his writings "soft stuff." This intellectual hardness is seen, and, on the whole, to advantage, in his whole attitude towards political economy. That science is an abomination and stumbling-block to sentimentalists of all schools. Sentimental humanitarians denounce it as inconsistent with Christianity. Writers who attack humanitarianism, but are swayed by a curious sentimentalism of their own, deride it as the dismal science. In truth, persons of all classes who appeal to the feelings naturally oppose a science which treats human nature, not as a thing for rhetoric, but as an object for intellectual investigation.

Curiously enough, the constant assault on the doctrines of political economy, as opposed to the natural feelings of mankind, has told and told most unfortunately on economists themselves. A modern treatise on political economy is almost always marked by a strangely apologetic tone. The writer labors to show that there is nothing in his science inconsistent with the most human sentiments. He throws into the background doctrines which may jar on his readers. He often is inclined to sacrifice logic in order to conciliate sympathy. Mr. Mill's treatise on political economy, for example, is in most respects above all praise, but no candid reader can deny that it is occasionally marred by the author's yielding to sentiment what he would hardly concede to argument. You at any rate miss something in the modern political economist which you find in such a writer as Ricardo, who mixes as little sentiment with questions of rent or wages as he would bring into a mathematical demonstration. Now, Mr. Greg is the sternest of political economists, and is, further, an economist who is not ashamed of the doctrine he professes, but puts it forth fearlessly in its hardest and most uncompromising form. No doubt his zeal for economical orthodoxy, combined with his passion for controversy, leads him into incessant disputes. Novelists, historians, essayists, any one who deviates from the narrow and strict path of economical truth, is sure to be assaulted by "W. R. G." His fervor for true doctrinae leads him occasionally astray. He recently, for instance, attacked Mr. Goldwin Smith quite unnecessarily on the ground of supposed false teaching on the subject of luxury. In the hurry of the moment, "W. R. G." used expressions which, until explained away, seemed nearly to commit him to something like economical heterodoxy; and when they were explained away, it appeared that between him and Mr. Goldwin Smith there existed scarcely any difference of doctrine, and that the dispute had arisen simply from a difference of sentiment. Mr. Greg, in fact, really dislikes anything which diminishes the apparent harshness of economical truths. Most writers are under the temptation, in dealing with questions between capital and labor, to let sympathy with artisans who appear at any rate to stand at a disadvantage in conflict with their masters, warp their economical conclusions. Mr. Greg knows no such weakness. His views of political economy have always led him to give his full sympathy to masters rather than to men. He has often corrected the popular error of supposing that the weaker party is necessarily in the right. He has always spoken out with manly boldness, and recently pressed trades-unionists so hard with the force of his reasoning that he was menaced with that physical violence which forms the last argument of artisans no less than of kings. It is, at any rate, a comfort to find a writer who will boldly defend a piece of legislation which has met with more obloquy than any enactment of equal value, and will openly tell his public that "we have spoiled and neutralized the one really scientific piece of legislation which England can boast of—the new poor-law as first proposed."

This eulogy of a most unpopular law is an example of the second and by far the most valuable quality of Mr. Greg's writings. They are marked by a very peculiar outspokenness and directness. In 'The Enigmas of Life' he speaks out in clear, definite language very rarely to be found in theological writings. A detestable habit prevails with the authors of the day of hinting at conclusions which they do not venture directly to draw. There is about even our best and most honest writers a curious tone of mystery and reserve. They seem to hint that there is something behind which they might say if they would, but, for some reason known to themselves, do not care to utter. Now, this reserve, which is mainly an affectation, is injurious to the writer and reader alike. The former flatters himself that he has in reserve for the support of his opinions an unknown force which very frequently has no existence whatever. The latter occupies himself in reading between the lines instead of simply weighing the value of his teacher's direct assertions and arguments. Mr. Greg shows the greatest desire to make the whole of his position clear to his readers. He loses the impressiveness which may be gained by mystery, but he obtains all the more careful hearing from every man of plain common sense. A fair

specimen of Mr. Greg's merits and defects may be found in his views on human progress. "Some," he writes, "believe only that a considerable number of human evils may be materially mitigated; others, more buoyant, have convinced themselves that with time, patience, and intelligent exertion, every evil not inherent in or essential to a finite existence may be eliminated, and the yawning gulf between the actual and the ideal at last bridged over. This faith is mine. I hold it with a conviction which I feel for scarcely any other conclusion of the reason. . . . I am not prepared to give up this life as 'a bad job,' and to look for reward, compensation, virtue, and happiness solely to another. I distinctly refuse to believe in *inevitable evils*." This cheerful creed at first sight resembles the sentimental optimism of which we hear enough, and more than enough, in all magazines or papers addressed to what is called the million. But it is at bottom something entirely different from the sentimentality which bases its hopes of indefinite prosperity on the fact that we have invented the steam-engine and the telegraph, combined with the very dubious hypothesis that good-will and good-nature are day by day extending their influence. Mr. Greg's belief is, as he terms it, "a conclusion of the reason," and is based on very distinct and, within certain limits, forcible arguments. He sums up the evils of our social condition under the three heads of disease, destitution, crime, and shows with great elaboration that each one of these three causes of misery can be counteracted. He further examines the agencies which in his opinion threaten to arrest the cause of progress. He finds them to be the alleged inevitable struggle for mere existence, the multiplication of the race from its least eligible specimens—what has been termed the "non-survival of the fittest," and, thirdly, the increasing prevalence of democratic views which tend to place power in the hands of ignorance. After carefully examining each of these obstacles, he gives his grounds for holding that none of them really need stop mankind in their career towards the perfect development of human nature.

Now, the whole of this theory of progress is noteworthy. It stands in singular opposition to the hopelessness which, under all the platitudes about prosperity and development, prevails among the thinkers of the day. This is an age of little faith and of little hope. The enthusiastic hopefulness which marked the commencement of the French Revolution is all but incomprehensible to the present generation. The buoyant cheerfulness which supported the spirit of the liberal writers at the commencement of the century during a generation of opposition has nearly died out. Mr. Greg's peculiarity is that he still retains the tone of manly hope which characterized the school in which he was trained. We confess to a considerable admiration for a writer who boldly and rationally decries the theory of inevitable evils. It is, in our judgment, almost impossible directly to confute the train of reasoning on which Mr. Greg relies in support of his views. Take any one definite evil, such, for example, as drunkenness, and it is impossible to deny that this particular evil may be got rid of; but if each single curse of existence can be warded off, it is very difficult to see why gradually the whole mass of human miseries may not be removed. If any person doubts the validity of this train of reasoning, he can do nothing better than read the chapters in which Mr. Greg has worked it out with a force and amplitude of detail of which no abstract can give a fair conception. Despair at human progress arises in a great measure from looking at all the evils of life in the mass. So regarded, they are enough to crush out all hope from the most hopeful, but if they are taken one by one, even the least sanguine may confess that they are each singly not past a remedy. Mr. Greg's turn of mind inclines him to reduce every question with which he deals to a clear definite form, and hence to get rid of that intellectual vagueness and mistiness which often obscure our views of social questions. Hence, in treating of progress, he has been able to divest a difficult question of a good deal of its difficulty, and by taking facts singly and examining them carefully, to produce solid argumentative grounds for a belief that sounds at first sight like the expression of irrational optimism.

Mr. Greg's views of progress are, in our judgment, in the main sound; but they indisputably exhibit, if not the weakness, certainly the limitation of his intellectual vision. You cannot directly combat his arguments, but you soon see that he has omitted several considerations which would at once be urged by a disbeliever in human perfectibility. Mr. Greg does not understand, and therefore does nothing to meet, the sentiment which lies deep in most person's minds, that all the improvements in society which imagination can picture are but too likely to leave untouched the contrast between the infinite nature of man's desires and the very finite nature of the objects he can actually attain, which is the source of half the real misery of the world. But Mr. Greg further fails to observe that the method of piecemeal reform which he recommends, reasonable though it appears, has never throughout history been in reality put in practice. His inattention to the

historical method of dealing with social problems blinds him in this matter to what would be obvious enough to far less vigorous thinkers. He himself points out that the advance of mankind has not gone on at an equable pace, but has in fact been made at two or three short periods of extraordinarily rapid progress. What he does not notice is that these periods have always been times of great intellectual or rather spiritual excitement. In other words, material progress seems to depend on what may be termed moral crises, in which the world is transformed by enthusiasm for some idea. What you want, in fact, at bottom for the reform either of individuals or of nations, is not petty rules for improvement but a new spirit; but this new spirit is not to be obtained by any maxims which thinkers can invent or propound. Mr. Greg fully appreciates the maxims by which men ought to be guided in their advance towards virtue; but he does not see the necessity for that impulse, spirit, or enthusiasm, call it by whatever term you please, which can raise these truisms into truths. He fails, in fact, to grasp exactly what hosts of very inferior writers perceive—the great part, that is to say, played in human progress by sentiments which cannot be reduced to rule. This defect must be noted, yet it rightly detracts but little from Mr. Greg's influence. Hundreds of writers on social or theological topics can appeal with effect to the sentiments of the public. Mr. Greg addresses the understanding of his readers; and readers a little sickened of sentimentality naturally pay heed to a teacher whose arguments may not be irrefutable, but who has the great merit of relying for success not on rhetoric but on honest reasoning. This is a great and rare merit in a political writer. It is even a greater and rarer merit in one who deals with theology. Hence the religious or theological portion of Mr. Greg's work is that which will make most impression on the public mind; but this is a subject which requires another article for its separate treatment.

Bits of Talk about Home Matters. By H. H. (Boston: Roberts Bros.)—The first half of this book bears a close and consistent relation to the subject announced on the title-page; in the last half the chapters, essays, or "bits of talk" pertain rather oftener than not to the general conduct of life, with little obvious or very immediate reference to home and home life. Our author's chief concern is with the treatment of children, and her remarks are addressed to (not to say aimed at) a class whose means permit them to take summer board in the country, to go abroad and settle in English lodging-houses, to burn maplewood fires, to keep saddle-horses, and frequent the opera; in short, to gratify most of their wants. What first strikes the reader with surprise is that this class is thought to stand in any special need of censure for cruel and oppressive treatment of their children; and his surprise is not diminished when he reflects that the same class has always furnished the examples of what foreigners are accustomed to regard as a very lax and *laissez-aller* sort of family discipline in this country. Among them, if among any class, we have had pointed out, and usually with the intimation that we ought to blush for it, that irreverence of youth for age, that Republic of the Family as 'H. H.' styles it, that disregard of authority even when authority is asserted, which have made the American spoiled child notorious and highly disreputable. In fact, the contrast between the independent and expansive "training" of the American nursery and the repressive system of the English, is one of the commonplaces of observation on the part of American travellers in the mother country. It is, too, but a few years since we were partly amused and partly disgusted by some frank revelations by the British matron of the way in which, with her own hand, she "walloped" her grown up daughters. We thought then, and probably said in our newspapers, that we had got beyond all that; that domestic corporal punishment, at least in all well-bred American families, was a thing of the past, as much so as flogging or "tunding" in our public schools. However, 'H. H.' is evidently convinced to the contrary, and opens her fire with a harrowing tale of child-murder under the guise of correction by a Presbyterian minister in Western New York. We have the greatest sympathy with her feelings on this matter, and are ready to maintain with her that blows inflicted by a parent on a child are an indignity to which the one ought not to stoop nor the other be subjected. We hold it to be sound doctrine that constant appeals to the reason of a child, unfailing cheerfulness, and tact in averting disappointment and collision are the best guarantees of his good behavior, and we should recommend 'Bits of Talk' for its examples of the application of this doctrine but for the unfortunate use of them as evidence of the infallible working of the rule laid down, as well as for the untenable positions into which her abhorrence of violence has led the author.

Carrying into effect the principle of Christian charity and non-resistance, the late Rev. S. J. May once invited to ride with him on the highway a wayfarer who he felt convinced had laid plans to assault him, perhaps kill him. No doubt he acted wisely as well

as humanely, but it would be absurd to recommend the same course in similar circumstances as certain to meet with the same success whenever tried, as if there were not ruffians whom no kindness could melt, who are insensible to gratitude, and who would not hesitate to improve the advantage afforded them by their victim. A rule is not necessarily to be abandoned because of its exceptions, but the exceptions must be admitted and provided for. This is precisely what 'H. H.' is unwilling to do. After advancing the very doubtful proposition that a child ought *never* to be reproved in the presence of others, she illustrates it with an excellent instance of tact in a case where reproof seemed inevitable. A child instead of being sent away from table is made apparently to excuse himself. "'But what would you do,'" asks 'H. H.' of the mother afterwards, "'if he were to refuse to ask to be excused?'" Then the tears stood full in her eyes. 'Do you think he could,' she replied, 'when he sees that I am only trying to save him from pain?'" We feel bound to answer that mother, through 'H. H.', that many a Charley as good as hers could do just that thing, and we will add that we should neither despair of him nor perhaps think the worse of him. Is it, indeed, not proverbial that children impose more upon their parents than upon others not so near to them in their affections, behaving with perfect propriety among strangers, and taking license to be unruly and mischievous under their mother's eyes and in spite of her never so gentle and sagacious protest? This is an everyday paradox which requires no doctrine of natural depravity to explain it. The question of flat disobedience being raised (and not answered by a flood of tears), it is interesting to see what 'H. H.' would do with it. She gives us in a subsequent chapter another proposition, to the effect that a parent has no right to require anything of a child simply *because* he is its parent. In other words, she brushes aside the notion of filial duty, of a habit of obedience, any further than a child can be made to assent to the justice and reasonableness of each act required of him. In the relation between parents and children she finds nothing reciprocal. "The truth is," she says, "all the obligation, in the outset, is the other way. We owe all to them." Her plan, therefore, is to substitute "influence" for authority or command. But take the case just cited. The mother's influence failed to check with repeated glances her boy's rudeness at table. What did she summon to her aid—more "influence"? No; she enforced her parental authority. Influence for the long run, authority for the special emergency. "Helplessness in the hands of power—that is the whole story," says our author. But then, to cite another of her examples, what else have we when she advises daily discipline of children in choosing?—"Will you have the apple, or the orange? You cannot have both." Power offers the alternative, helplessness accepts but cannot revoke. Of the same thing a much more striking instance is given, quite unconsciously, in the chapter on "breaking the will." A four-year-old who had great difficulty in pronouncing the letter G, and at last refuses to say it any more, is taken in hand by a "wise mother" after she feels she cannot avoid the issue. She keeps him in the room and stays with him herself for three days before he yields, which he does at last. We are quite willing to applaud this mother, but only because she made a judicious use of power over helplessness, and because she proved to her son that her will was stronger than his, and that in any conflict between them his must give way. 'H. H.' may, if she pleases, treat this as Willy's "fight with himself" and not with his mother's superior wisdom as well as power, and as an example of not "breaking the will." To most of her readers, we are sure, it will appear in its true light.

We have already overstepped the limits we had proposed for this review, which would be incomplete, however, if we did not add that the chapters on children are fruitful of suggestion and are unexceptionable in spirit, as they are agreeable in style. We have indulged thus freely in criticism because if, on the one hand, we would not do anything to bolster up the régime of domestic harshness and violence, on the other we would not obscure the difficult problem of education with mistaken sentimentality and illusions based on the deception of words. Perhaps even between the tyranny of the child as so often exhibited in France, and the tyranny of the parent, we should prefer the latter. That it exists in this country to the extent implied by 'H. H.' we do not believe; and if called upon for evidence that she has deceived herself, we should draw it from her chapter on the "awkward age"—an age surely known in all walks of life, in the kindest as well as in the rudest households, but which our author boldly declares has nothing to do with "the thinness of cheeks, the sharpness of arms, the sudden length in legs and lack of length in trousers and frocks," but only with the lack of consideration and courtesy with which children turning adults had previously been treated.

chapter on Heine] by Simon Adler Stern. (New York: Holt & Williams; pp. 185, with Index.)—This new volume of the Leisure Hour Series is a capital addition to the growing harvest of German classics made part of our own literature by successful translation. That difficult task is increased a hundredfold in Heine's case, where the man's German nature was so curiously altered by his love of French ideas, and yet Mr. Stern has succeeded in putting Heine into an English dress, and in doing it so well that those who read the great original will still find pleasure in seeing with what patient ingenuity and studious zeal our uncouth English has been subdued to the interpretation of the wittiest of Germans and the most delicate of word-painters in French or German. Mr. Stern's preliminary chapter can fairly hold its own as against Matthew Arnold's popular essay on Heine, and he has perhaps erred in quoting so largely from it, when he shows such familiarity with the intricacies of Heine's literary character, in which so much of good and bad, of earnest jest and frivolous seriousness, is confused and confounded. The 'Florentine Nights' recall, but not in the way of mere imitation, Goethe's 'Wilhelm Meister.' Carlyle's success in translating that into the unfamiliar English of nearly fifty years ago, when German was a little-known tongue, is nearly equalled by the grace and easy flow of Mr. Stern's translation of Heine's least Gallicized German. The story of the 'Florentine Nights' is charming in its vague and uneventful wandering, with its strong suggestion of the great original, the 'Arabian Nights,' and its still stronger contrast. Yet even in this love-tale occur some of the best examples of Heine's biting vein. His description of speaking English has often been imitated, but never improved: "Englishmen take a mouthful of consonants, chew them, crush them, spit them out again, and they call that speaking!" 'Scintillations' is a rather fanciful literary title, and even "Excerpts" does not fairly describe that part of the book. In the translation there are, along with some inelegancies of English, rather too many French phrases, not a few of which are almost technical, and therefore likely to pass uninterpreted. The faults of the press are few, but in a second edition we should hope an effort would be made to correct the punctuation and such evident misprints as "Pallagoni" and "Wantram."

Exercises in Greek Prose Composition. (By Elisha Jones. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1872.)—Scholars who in their younger days have been obliged painfully to toil through the old Arnold's 'Greek Prose Composition,' of which the plan was a mystery and the details were mistakes, will be happy to examine this work, of which Part First, for beginners, is now issued. Our impression of it is a very favorable one. The constructions which the author introduces are well illustrated by the Greek sentences chosen as models: Chapter XX., on the Indirect Discourse, seems particularly satisfactory in this respect. The thorough teacher will not feel compelled to give his class English sentences supplementary to those which our author has provided, nor yet to score out others because they have nothing to do with a working knowledge of Greek writing.

One exception to the work we must take. Each page, beautiful in all other respects, bristles with grammatical references. We are sorry that the student is told to consult his grammar in so many instances where the principles should be quite in the boy's possession already.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices
Austin (G. L.), Life of Franz Schubert.....	(Shepard & Gill) \$1 25
Browning (R.), Red Cotton Nightcap Country: Poetry.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Castlemor (H.), The Sportsman's Club in the Saddle.....	(Porter & Coates) 1 25
Colesworthy (D. C.), The Year: Poetry.....	(Lee & Shepard)
Cooke (J. E.), Her Majesty the Queen.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Dana (A. H.), Inductive Inquiries in Physiology, Ethics, and Ethnology.....	(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 1 25
De Barnardy (C. W.), Hand-Book to Vienna and the Exposition.....	
De Vere (Prof. M. S.), Modern Magic.....	(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Dictionary of the Derivations of the English Language.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 01
Dictionary of Synonyms of the English Language.....	" 00
Edwards (Mrs. Annie), A Vagabond Heroine.....	" 00
Heine (H.), Scintillations.....	(Sheldon & Co.) 1 25
Helmsley (W. B.), Hand-Book of Hardy Trees, Shrubs, etc.....	(Eaton & Lauriat) 7 50
Leaves from a Trooper's Diary.....	(Philadelphia)
Jester (J. E.), The Atlantic to the Pacific.....	(Shepard & Gill) 1 50
Life, Journals, and Letters of Dean Alford.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
May (Sophie), Little Grandfather.....	(Lee & Shepard)
Monroe (L. B.), Public and Parlor Readings.....	(Sheldon & Co.)
Morford (H.), Short-Trip Guide to Europe.....	(Philadelphia)
Moorman (Dr. J. J.), Mineral Springs of North America.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Nunez (H. Helen), Leisure Moments: Poetry.....	" 00
Putnam's Elementary Science Series, 6 vols.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 0 75
Ruskin (J.), The Poetry of Architecture, etc.....	(John Wiley & Son) 1 50
Saint Germain (J. T. de), Only a Pin.....	Catholic Publication Society 1 00
Schumann (F.), Formulas and Tables for Architects and Engineers.....	(Warren, Choate & Co.)
The Iron Hand, swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 00
The Cumulating Fair: Poetry, swd.....	(Warren F. Draper) 0 25
The Men of the Third Republic.....	(Porter & Coates) 1 75
Warren (S. E.), Free-hand Geometrical Drawing.....	(John Wiley & Son) 0 75
Weyland (J. M.), The Man with the Book.....	(Nelson & Phillips)
Whitney (Mrs. A. D. T.), The Other Girls.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2 00

White (Rev. R. B.), Reason and Redemption.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Why She Refused Him.....	"
Wuttke (Dr. A.), Christian Ethics, 2 vols.....	(Nelson & Phillips)

Fine Arts.

THE DI CESNOLA COLLECTION.

TEMPLE-RELICS FROM GOLGOI.—I.

THE trustees of the Metropolitan Museum, finding that the enormous contribution of Gen. di Cesnola could not be completely unpacked during the season, and having got into shape an excellent loan collection of art and *bric-à-brac*, began to exhibit last Monday, in their new temporary quarters, No. 128 West Fourteenth Street, with such material as was ready. This was clearly the best course, as, if the autumn months had been waited for, their opening would have lacked the advantageous presence of the discoverer, who returns to his consulate in September. But it inflicted necessarily a great wrong upon the exhibition of antiquities, depriving it of an *éclat* in its first outburst which can never be regained now. The most imposing portion, the statuary, is but partly unboxed, and no completeness in the cabinets of glass or pottery can quite atone for the want of *esprit de corps* which affects as yet these Cypriote colossi; they are now standing, as old dramas say, dispersedly, in a loitering company about the stairs, into whose ranks an occasional god floats up out of the earth, as the professional moulder harmonize his members in a unity of heated cement, and send him warm from the basement. Any attempt to reconstruct the interior of the Golgoi temple, whose dimensions and furniture are nevertheless so completely in our possession, is not undertaken as yet by the Museum; and must be made by the visitor's mind, after bringing together much scattered material. Yet just as it is, the assemblage is in many respects one of the most captivating and stimulating in the world.

We have kept pace to some extent in the *Nation* with the discovery and acquisition of these remains; and our article of January 23 last, quoting General di Cesnola's own description of the ruins at Golgoi as he found them, precludes the need of much preliminary setting in order. We simply remind the reader that on the night of March 6, 1870, the American Consul was informed of the unearthing of a colossus and some minor pieces in the environs of Athienau (an inland town back of Larnaca), where the French antiquarian De Vogüé had already dug with slight result. Immediately leasing the ground in the name of his chief dragoman, our representative began his explorations, and by excavating towards the valley, instead of uphill, from the trenches of De Vogüé, he quickly struck the foundations of the ancient temple. This sanctuary soon yielded its whole contents to the lucky explorer, among which were a thousand statues. It was a small shrine, only thirty feet by one hundred in the length of its sides, buried about two yards deep in a hard clay apparently partly formed from its own walls of unburnt brick; no part of the building above the foundations was preserved, and bases of columns were found only at the doorways; its earthen walls, wooden pillars, and perhaps wattled roof had decayed, while the statuary, sharply broken as if by an earthquake or a sudden iconoclasm, was mostly adjustable with ease, and perfectly fresh in surface. Into this limited quadrangle the hieratic art of Phoenicia, Egypt, Greece, Assyria, and probably Persia had settled through an incalculable period of time, sometimes sharp in type and definition, sometimes mutually mingled, with the most incalculable inflections and disturbances. This populace of images now bodily in the midst of us is the noblest part of the booty from Cyprus.

No figure distinctly assignable as the divinity-in-chief has been found; the supreme patron cannot even be named with certainty, but everything points to the worship of Aphrodite. M. Georges Colonna Ceccaldi, a youthful amateur who was present at a part of the work of excavation, and who has published several reports in the *Revue Archéologique*, professed to recognize in a tapering cylinder lying among the fragments the base of a cone, emblem of Venus, adored at Paphos in a similar shape, and of whom the creed was brought to Golgoi by Golgus, son of Adonis and the goddess. This remains conjectural, but meantime the honors of the statuary are borne off by figures not divine, but those of priests or worshippers. Upon these, differing as they do from all sculpture elsewhere obtained, and of periods incalculably remote, the attention is fixed, in a perfect maze of curiosity, study, comparison, suggestion, reminiscence, and surmise.

One head, that of the colossus *par excellence*, especially excites wonder and conjecture: from its enormous almond eyes, which, if properly placed, would hang in the air between thirty and forty feet above the ground, it is hard to say how many centuries look down upon us. The fragments of the statue to which it belonged have not been identified with certainty, and it is seen as the enormous capital to a very modest shaft. Its necessary alti-

tude would seem almost too great for the height of so small a building, and although it was found within the walls, it may possibly have been before reversal a watcher without the door. In this head the Cypriote type, which we soon learn to trace by a comparison of the other sculptures, is seen in its blankest distinctness and most exaggerated measure. It is singular and intelligent, but the expression seems one of the superficies only; it is impossible to say what all these smiling faces around us are really thinking about. The colossus in question has long flat eyes, receding forehead, and acute facial angle, the weakness of the chin disguised by the ample fan of a beard, which, though covered with a bag, reveals the four ringleted locks in which it is divided; the nose is swelled, slightly aquiline, and pointed; Assyrian curls appear under the edge of the cap, which is that of a large number of the statues, and similar to the one worn in Cyprus to this day. It is a close bonnet, fitting to the head, and running up to a point; in this case, the jugular flaps, which might be drawn down over the ears, are returned closely over the cap; in other statues the same jugularies are tied in front with an ornamental knot, and the point is often decorated with the head of an animal. The mouth of the giant is fixed in a half-moon smile, common to most of the statuary. This eternal rictus of a thin flat lip on all the archaic faces present begins, after a detailed examination of the museum, to haunt the mind. From its rigidity it is, even when unmalicious, not reassuring. It bears a slight resemblance to the expression in archaic Greek sculpture; but what is very curious is that, for a perfect correspondence, we must go completely over to the early art of Italy. It is Etruria, in figures such as those mortuary reclining ones from Cervetri preserved in the Campana room of the Louvre, which yields us these receding foreheads, acute profiles, and all-promising amiability. This correspondence is an item of evidence in the theory skilfully maintained by our correspondent, Mr. Stillman, of the identity of the Etruscans with an ancient race of builders and sculptors who carried the tide of primitive art eastward through Greece, the other Mediterranean islands, and Asia Minor. A curious difference exists, though, in the permanence of their stock, as upon the mainland or insulated. No modern Pelasgic (Etruscan) faces are to be found in Italy; but in the island of Cyprus the type is most strikingly preserved, and the workmen of General di Cesnola—acute, subtle, bland, and none the worse for a little watching—dug up in many cases their own portrait busts at Golgoi, three or four thousand years old, and strikingly like. The photo-

graphs, retained by the explorer, of indigenous islanders are incontrovertible proofs of descent and identity.

The colossal head above noted, on which Egypt, Babylon, and Assyria seem to have severally pressed a chisel, is of a date extremely hard to approximate. But behind it in the museum, and to the left, stands the greater part of a figure which may be almost immeasurably older. It is Egyptian in general character, and like the giant seems to have been smoothed by the effacing influence of time; complete, it would be perhaps nine feet high. The hair is thickly clubbed, descending to the shoulder; the ear, as always in Egypt, is opposite the eye; the shoulders and pectorals are perfectly Egyptian, and adorned with the triple collar of royalty; but the face is not without that expression of a reserved meaning common to the true Cypriote countenances, and a bag is indicated for the beard, which, however, does not trespass beyond the regular oval of the chin; there is a belt set with stars, and flaps of short drapery cover the thighs above where they are broken off. It is in relation to figures of which this is a marked example that the eminent Keeper of Greek and Roman Antiquities in the British Museum, Mr. C. T. Newton, hazards the conjecture:

"Are any of them memorials of that earlier subjection of Cyprus (the Kefal of hieroglyphic texts) which, as may be inferred from Egyptian monuments, had taken place as early as the reign of Thothmes III. [about 1500 B.C.], or even earlier?"

Statues of the heroic size may be assigned to a situation in the temple forming a double row along the nave; the pedestals were discovered in position, generally furnished with sockets to receive the base of the statues, from which posture the latter seem to have been violently overthrown, with the effect of breaking them above the feet. The large figures are finished only in front, being in fact alto-reliefs on a flat slab; when set up, they were placed against a wall, or back to back, for which arrangement broad-topped pedestals were formed, with a double socket.

The Egyptian treatment is very common among these figures, though not in a single instance perhaps does a statue cause the veritable Egyptian illusion. The most obvious explanation seems to be that a succession of Cypriote nobles or kings, at an epoch when the island was a dependency of Egypt, erected their votive statues in the temple, draped, except in small ineradicable details, according to the fashion of their conquerors. A similar solution is obvious for the marks of Assyrian influence.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

MAY 26, 1873.

WALL Street has rarely witnessed a duller week than the one just past. Money has remained easy, the rates on call loans ruling between 5 and 7 per cent. throughout the week, while money was loaned as low as 4 per cent. The ease in money has naturally stimulated the demand for commercial paper, although business in it has somewhat decreased, owing to the fact that most of the paper for sale at high rates was taken off the market, and holders of that now remaining are indisposed to sell except at comparatively low rates. The suspension has taken place of a number of large firms comprising a lumber combination, that of Messrs. Dodge & Co., of this city being the most important; the suspensions in question seem to have been brought about by a combination of circumstances such as the late severe stringency in the money market, the high freights on the Lakes, and the unusual backwardness of the season; the firm was hampered by being obliged to carry along other houses in the combination who were weak, and whose paper we hear bore the endorsement of Messrs. Dodge & Co. No doubt seems to be felt that, if a reasonable extension is given, most of the firms that have suspended will be able to pay everything, and that, after having done so, some of them will have a large surplus. The aggregate liabilities of the combination are stated to be as high as \$9,000,000.

The Bank of England lost £40,000 in bullion last week, but no further change was made in the discount trade, which remains at 6 per cent. as last reported. Up to Saturday, foreign advices show a better and more settled feeling both in London and Germany; the effect that may be produced by the political disturbance in France remains to be seen.

The weekly statement of the city banks is unfavorable. The deposits and circulation have increased \$1,932,800, and the reserve has fallen off \$415,600, which is equal to a net loss of \$898,800 to the banks for the week.

The following is a comparison of the past with the preceding week:

	May 17.	May 24.	Differences.
Loans	\$279,074,400	\$279,846,300	Inc. \$1,771,900
Specie	20,698,900	20,682,600	Dec. 66,300
Circulation	27,489,200	27,493,800	Dec. 4,600
Deposits	207,831,100	209,762,300	Inc. 1,928,200
Legal tenders	43,102,200	42,752,900	Dec. 349,300

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	May 17.	May 24.	Differences.
Specie	\$20,698,900	\$20,632,600	Dec. \$66,300
Legal tenders	43,102,200	42,752,900	Dec. 349,300
Total reserve	\$63,801,100	\$63,385,500	Dec. \$415,600
Circulation	27,489,200	27,493,800	Dec. 4,600
Deposits	207,831,100	209,762,300	Inc. 1,928,200
Total liabilities	\$235,323,300	\$237,256,100	Inc. \$1,932,800
25 per cent. reserve	58,830,825	59,314,025	
Excess over legal reserve	4,970,213	4,072,475	Dec. 898,800

The following table separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans	\$240,949,100	\$28,897,200	\$279,846,300
Specie	18,592,000	2,040,010	\$20,632,600
Legal tenders	37,623,200	5,129,700	42,752,900
Deposits	180,489,600	29,272,700	209,762,300
Circulation	27,450,800	43,000	27,493,800
Percentage of reserve to total liabilities	27.3-100 p.c.	24.46-100 p.c.	26.72-100 p.c.

Nothing but dullness has been felt in the stock market. Beyond the fluctuations in a few speculative stocks, like Western Union and Pacific Mail, the changes have been unimportant. The topic of interest was the probable result of the approaching election for officers of the Pacific Mail S. S. Co. We gather from the various conflicting rumors regarding it that Jay Gould holds the "whip hand," and that upon his vote depends the result. People who ought to know better try to reason that in the event of his gaining control of the Company, the price of the stock will go down, and bankruptcy and ruin follow his administration of its affairs; from what we have seen of Gould's management of companies, we rather think that if it suits his interest to try and improve the property of any that he controls, he will do so—if not, then take Erie for example. Western Union has been quiet, and the parties operating for a rise are resting on their oars and waiting apparently for something to turn up, the present dull state of the

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general market being such that it is useless to try the "washing" process for the purpose of stimulating speculation.

The investment stocks keep pace with the dullness in other stocks. We notice that there has been a falling off in the price of Chicago, Burlington and Quincy. It is likely that the decline has taken place owing to sales made by owners who are dissatisfied with the policy of the management in not buying up the bonds of branch roads which were placed among the stockholders of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy during the last few years, and which the Company agreed to purchase every year with the earnings of the branch roads after paying interest. The agreement was that 40 per cent. of these earnings should be so used and the neglect of the Company to carry out the agreement has caused general dissatisfaction. New Jersey Central and Delaware, Lackawanna and Western are firm, with a good investment demand for the former.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending May 24, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	43,500
Lake Shore	90%	91%	90%	91%	90%	91%	70,700
Erie	61%	62%	61%	62%	61%	61%	70,300
Do. pfd.	74	72	73	74	73	73	75
Union Pacific	30%	31%	30%	31%	30%	31%	2,600
Chi. & N. W.	80	83	83	83	83	83	1,000
Do. pfd.	85%	86	84%	84%	85	85	20
N. J. Central	101%	105	104%	105	104%	105	19,000
Rock Island	80%	108%	108%	108%	107%	107	12,600
Mil. & St. Paul	54%	54%	54%	54%	54%	54%	100
Do. pfd.	71%	73	72%	74	72%	73	3,300
Wabash	69%	69%	69%	69%	68%	68%	90,200
D. L. & Western	102%	103	102%	103	103	103	5,000
B. H. & Erie	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2,000
O. & W.	4%	4%	4%	4%	4%	4%	73,700
C. C. & C.	30	30	30	31	30	31	21,700
W. U. Tel.	85%	86%	85%	85%	84%	85%	90,200
Pacific Mail	45	47%	44%	45%	45%	45%	2,600

The foreign demand for United States bonds continues as active as ever, and the demand is still greater than the supply. The total amount shipped since April 1 is stated to be \$15,000,000, the 5-20's of 1867 constituting the bulk of the shipments. Prices are strong on a basis of 121 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 121 $\frac{3}{4}$ for 1867's.

The Gold market has attracted considerable interest, owing to the fact that a leading operator in stocks has for a time transferred his interest to the Gold Room. The short interest in gold is estimated as high as \$40,000,000, and this is said to be the basis upon which a bull movement is to be inaugurated by the person referred to. The short interest is pretty well divided between the foreign bankers, the importers, and speculators. The impression prevails that cash gold will be made scarce, and that the shorts will be compelled to pay "shaves" for its daily use and cover maturing contracts falling due within the next two or three weeks. The *Daily Bulletin* of to-day says:

"It would seem that there is no article about which buyers and sellers are so prone to run into extremes as gold. After a steady advance in the price from 112 to close upon 120, upon considerations which appear to have commanded the assent of a majority of those directly interested in the variations of the premium, affairs appeared to be taking a turn favorable to a reaction. The exports of produce showed a flattering gain upon those of last year; there was a steady demand for our securities from London, in the face of a violent panic at Vienna; the advance of the Bank of England rate of discount to 6 per cent. failed to depress our bonds at London, and the rates of sterling bills on this market immediately declined; these things caused operators, foreign bankers, and merchants to jump to the conclusion at once that the time for a decline in the premium had come, and simultaneously all became sellers of gold which they did not possess, but which they had to borrow in order to make their deliveries. Thus, within two or three days, a 'short' interest was created in the market far exceeding in amount the whole supply on the market. These excessive sales are likely to defeat the very decline which the sellers had anticipated. It matters little what may be the existing conditions affecting intrinsically the value of gold when the speculative situation is of such a character as this. If a clique holds the entire supply, and has it loaned out, it has it in its power, by calling in the loans, to compel the borrowers to pay any rate of interest to keep up the loan, or any premium to purchase for a settlement. From all we can learn of the present speculative situation of the market, it would seem that another Black Friday may occur at any time."

The imports for the week amounted to \$7,105,811 general merchandise, and \$1,497,417 dry goods, making a total of \$8,585,218. The shipments of specie were unimportant, and consisted mainly of silver bars.

